The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 22, 1894.

The Week.

THE passage of the so-called seigniorage bill by the Senate was not unexpected. It has produced little or no disturbance as yet, because the common expectation is that the President will veto it, and that it cannot be passed over a veto. It is also a fact generally recognized by the business community that the bill, even if it should become a law, would not produce much mischief under the present management of the Treasury. This is undoubtedly true. The worst feature of the bill is that it brings us once more to the parting of the ways, and sends the nation upon the wrong road; for, as surely as it becomes a law, so surely do we again start on the descent from which we were rescued only by the repeal of the Sherman act last year. We are at the same parting of the ways—the same in substance—as when Gen. Grant vetoed the inflation bill. That was likewise a scheme for depreciating the currency. All the silver and greenback measures have that common end. Gen. Grant vetoed the inflation bill. It disappeared, and the greenback party withered as though it had been struck by lightning. Depreciation of the currency would never have been thought of again during the present generation but for the decline in the price of silver—a pure accident, but a most calamitous one to this country. It was this accident that put new breath into the unburied corpse, and gave to the cheap-money crowd the ascendency which they enjoyed from 1878 to 1893. How the idea was ever conceived that it would be a social benefit to have a depreciating and fluctuating dollar, is an insoluble mystery; but we know that it exists to a very considerable extent in this country, and that it now and then makes head against all the forces of reason and experience.

While the seigniorage bill was pending in Congress the attention of its friends was invited to the fact that it would, if it should become a law, produce contraction of the currency rather than expansion. The second section of the bill says that all Treasury notes issued under the act of 1890 which come into the Treasury shall be cancelled, and that thereupon silver certificates shall be issued in the manner now provided by law. Now, suppose that Messrs. Lazard Frères, who happen to be exporting a little of the yellow metal at this time, take a million of these notes to the sub-treasury and demand and receive gold for them The Bland seigniorage act being in force, the secretary has no option but to cancel the $1,000,000 of notes thus received. Then he looks to see what law may be in force to enable him to issue silver certificates, and he finds that the only law on the subject of silver certificates is one which authorizes the secretary to issue them to persons depositing standard silver dollars in the Treasury on their demand, and not otherwise. This is the act of February 28, 1878, the Bland-Allison act. It is doubtful, indeed, whether the terms of this act apply to any silver dollars coined under any other act; but supposing that they do, the fact still remains that no certificate can be issued except to a depositor of silver dollars. So the net result would be that $1,000,000 of Treasury notes would be cancelled—merely this and nothing more. Perhaps this would not be a bad thing in the long run, but it would not be exactly what Mr. Bland intended.

The fact that no Southern State but Delaware, Maryland, and Louisiana cast a vote against the seigniorage bill in the Senate on Thursday gives renewed emphasis to Mr. Hewitt's recent observation about the way the South is represented in Congress—or, if you please, misrepresented. More than once within a few weeks the Legislature of Maryland has practically passed censure on Senator Gorman's attitude towards the tariff bill, and on Thursday night a leading Democratic organization in West Virginia sent formal word to the United States Senators from that State that they ought to live up to their party pledges and support tariff reform or resign their seats. It is undoubtedly true that the silver heresy has a stronger hold on the South than the protection heresy. The South may be said to be traditionally for tariff reform. The silver question is a newer issue, and, like its twin sister the greenback question, appeals easily to men uneducated in economic matters, whose incomes are small, and who always have to face a certain amount of indebtedness.

As it passed the House of Representatives, that portion of the Wilson bill which proposes a tax upon incomes in excess of $4,000, provides (section 55) that "in estimating the gains, profit, and income of any person there shall be included . . . the amount of money, notes, bonds, choses in action, and the value of any personal property received by gift, devise, or inheritance" within the calendar year. Manifestly a federal inheritance tax of 2 per cent. is thus levied upon all bequests of personal property which exceed $4,000, and, in case the legatee's income for the year in question approaches the taxable limit, upon bequests even smaller than $4,000. With the purpose of the Wilson bill as commonly interpreted—viz., to impose a tax upon incomes—this provision is entirely at variance. Income, properly understood, is a recurring revenue; it is, as a rule, more or less steady, foreknowable. A gift, devise, or inheritance comes to the recipient once for all; it is not, for the most part, followed by other like sums from a similar source. Legacies constitute a superaddition to the legatee's income, frequently a considerable, and in general an unexpected or, at least, an unearned, superaddition. They thus increase, for the time, the recipient's ability to pay taxation, and it is precisely upon this ground that inheritance taxes are chiefly defended in most countries where they exist. To tax legacies as if they were a part of income is an absurdity. Such an absurdity the Wilson bill commits in reference to bequests of personal property, but not in reference to devises of realty. That the bill, being thus absurd, is not consistently absurd, may be due to inadvertence. Those sections of the bill which propose an income tax are evidently drafted with less care than the parts for which Mr. Wilson is more directly responsible. Nevertheless, it is incredible that any portion of the bill has been drawn so heedlessly as to impose an unintended tax of not less than fifteen millions annually; the blunder would be too gross.

A more probable explanation is, that the death duty upon personal property was introduced into the bill as a compensatory tax. Such is the character of the inheritance taxes in our States, where the "general" property tax notoriously fails to reach any considerable share of the personal property legally liable to taxation. But the federal Government has no property tax to be compensated. As a matter of fact, however, the proposed federal income tax will probably bear with disproportionate weight upon income from real property. Income from personal property will more generally evade taxation, in spite of the attempt to tax income from corporate bonds, etc., as nearly as possible at its source. But, on the other hand, salary income will certainly suffer still more than income from real estate. As a compensatory device, then, for the probable shortcomings of the income tax, any inheritance tax whatever, levied exclusively upon personalty, must be painfully defective. The particular inheritance tax imposed by the Wilson bill is further objectionable both because of the form in which

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the levy is provided for, and because of the size of the legacies taxed. If a federal inheritance tax upon personalty be needed at all for a compensatory purpose, that purpose should be avowed, and the tax enacted clearly and unmistakably in a separate section of the law, not hidden away in a couple of lines of a section devoted to a different subject. Likewise the compensatory tax should be levied, not upon a four-thousand-dollar legacy, corresponding at 5 per cent. to an income of two hundred dollars, but only upon bequests of such sums as, at current rates of interest, will afford the income itself taxable under the law.

We are glad to agree for once with the organ of the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia. That paper strongly protests against the increase in the tax on distilled spirits. "The tax now levied upon alcohol," it says, "is just about *six times* the value of the material; that is to say, every manufacturer who uses alcohol pays a tax of 500 per cent. for the privilege." As a raw material of industry, alcohol stands in the first rank, along with iron ore, wool, and lumber. It enters into the composition of innumerable things, and is perhaps of more importance to the medical art than any other article or agent in the world. In Great Britain the Government furnishes methylated spirits to manufacturers free of tax. By this means the alcohol is treated with wood gas, which renders it repulsive and sickening as a beverage, but does not impair its qualities as an agent for manufacturing purposes. Plans have been brought forward from time to time for introducing this system here, but they have been found inadequate by reason of the wide extent of the country and the consequent difficulty of keeping the business under strict surveillance. It is the opinion of those most competent to judge that if we should attempt to make alcohol used in the arts free of tax, we should be obliged to make it free for all purposes. Therefore, when it is proposed to put an additional tax of 20 cents a gallon on raw spirits, two gallons of which are required to make one gallon of alcohol, a very serious question is presented apart from the question whether the present tax is or is not the most judicious one. Mr. David A. Wells, whose authority on this subject is undeniable, holds that the present tax of 90 cents per gallon is the highest that the conditions of this country permit, that the maximum of revenue is derived from it, and that any considerably higher rate would lead to illicit distillation on a large scale. Of course there will always be disputes on this theoretical point, but there can be none on the point that an additional tax of 20 cents would be a severe and needless blow to many manufacturing industries.

A correspondent asks whether the retaliatory duties levied by President Harrison upon the coffee and hides of Colombia and Venezuela will s and under the Wilson bill. Beyond all doubt they will not, whatever may become of the reciprocity treaties. The duty of any collector of customs will be to enforce the law as he finds it. Under the new tariff, coffee and hides will be admitted free of duty, no matter where they come from, and no power is given the President or anybody else to make any discriminations. The collectors will have no occasion to concern themselves any longer with President Harrison's fulminations, after his warrant of law for issuing them has been destroyed. They will let all that dead past bury itself and collect the duties which the law says they are to collect, and no others.

The Democratic members of the Senate finance committee have at last recovered from their astonishing aberrations of mind on the reciprocity question. They now say that they have never had any doubt that the Wilson bill necessarily destroys the McKinley reciprocity bargains, but that they propose to remove all possible ambiguity on that point by inserting a specific amendment covering the case. This is satisfactory both in itself and as an indication that our lawmakers are not so hopelessly bereft of sense as they sometimes try to make themselves out. No less satisfactory is the decision, now made public, not to insist upon the abrogation of the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty. That was a bona-fide treaty, and in it the United States obtained a valuable consideration—the cession of Pearl Harbor. In return for that we promised the Hawaiians the free admission of their sugar, and if we keep the harbor, we ought to give them what we agreed to pay for it. Moreover, to do so will contribute more to the settlement of the Hawaiian question than all the buncombe speeches that can be packed into a whole set of *Congressional Records*. When the Hawaiians get their sugar free again, while other imported sugar is taxed, their burning republicanism and the immoralities of the Queen should disappear like the early dew, along with their intense desire to be annexed.

The Hawaiian annexationists have scored a great point in getting the "Portuguese colony" to come out strongly for annexation to the United States. This was accomplished in a mass-meeting of that colony held on February 19, when stirring resolutions were passed to that effect. As there are 8,602 Portuguese in the islands, 6,276 of whom cannot read and write, the importance of this accession to the annexation cause will be apparent. But if they are none too literate, they evidently are good patriots, for they also resolved strongly against "the increase of Asiatics" in the islands. As the Asiatics outnumber the Portuguese three to one, and have been in Hawaii, many of them, much longer, the proposal to expel them and to make them register and take out licenses shows how beautifully the principles of majority rule and of human brotherhood are at work in the key of the Pacific. The offensive Asiatics, for their part, held a mass-meeting on February 14, and asserted their right to a continuance of the privileges they had heretofore enjoyed under the Hawaiian Constitution and laws. This, too, is accounted a powerful argument for annexation.

The "balance of trade" in our favor for the past eight months of panic and distress is $218,000,000. Shades of Blaine and substance of McKinley, where is that balance? We know, for they have told us, that such balances are always "paid over," and in "gold." That some $200,000,000 was paid over in 1891, McKinley asserted on his sacred honor, though how it slipped in and who had got it he firmly refused to say. Anyhow it was a great triumph of protection and a crowning proof of the prosperity of the country, showing how exceeding clever we had been to sell the deluded foreigners $200,000,000 more than we had bought of them. But now it seems that hard times are even better than protection to bring about that blessed crippling of our purchasing power. To a mind like McKinley's this must be "significant of much," though to the ordinary mind its principal significance will be that the balance of trade is, as commonly understood, nothing but the balance of nonsense.

Secretary Morton continues to administer the Agricultural Department in an unconventional way which is a constant surprise to the politicians. A practice had grown up of sending scientists and experts employed by the department to the annual meetings and conventions of scientific and agricultural bodies in different parts of the country, whenever their presence was asked, to deliver lectures and read papers on various subjects, their expenses being paid by the Government. Mr. Morton has recently written a letter to the Secretary of the Michigan Dairymen's Association, declining to detail a man from the Agricultural Department to address the body at its meeting in Flint, and giving his reasons for taking this stand. He points out that no provision is made in the statute for the payment of such travelling expenses, and that it is only by indirection that they can be justified. If the secretary has authority to send a man to the Dairymen's Association at

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Flint to make a speech or read a paper, he could not refuse similar requests from other agricultural associations. "And tell me," he writes to the Association's secretary, "where the line shall be drawn, and how long, if this practice is continued and grows with the same luxuriance which has characterized its growth in the last three years, it will be before every division in the Department of Agriculture will be filled with vacant chairs of employees who are engaged in lecturing to associations throughout the country, the Government paying their expenses to and from these meetings?"

The abolition of Fast Day in Massachusetts, legally accomplished on Friday, is personally a triumph for ex-Gov. Russell, who first, though unsuccessfully, urged it upon the Legislature. The day had come to be only a pious mockery, in reality nothing but a general holiday masquerading as a time of fasting and prayer. So strong had been the impression of the evil wrought by such insincerity in the name of religion, that many of the more thoughtful religious leaders of the State have for some time advocated making an end of the simulacrum. Its abolition will doubtless seem to many timid souls as little better than a plunge into atheism, but it is really in the interest of religion as well as of common sense and sound ideas of government.

The London *Economist*, which is a very serious paper indeed, is almost alone in the English press in refusing as yet to treat Lord Rosebery as a statesman. It says truly that he is an almost unknown quantity to the British public—that is, much more like our "dark horses" than the British premiers, who generally climb painfully to power through long years in Parliament and many subordinate places, are apt to be. Gladstone had been thirty-seven years in Parliament, and was sixty years old, before he became premier. Disraeli had been thirty-seven years in Parliament, also, and was sixty-nine years old, before he became premier. Peel had been in Parliament thirty-five years, and was fifty-three years old. Palmerston had been forty-eight years in Parliament, and was seventy-one years old. Salisbury had been in the House of Commons fifteen years before he went to the House of Lords, and was fifty-five when he became premier, seventeen years later. But the *Economist* says that "before 1884 Lord Rosebery was practically unknown to the great mass of electors of the United Kingdom." He has had a cabinet position for only two years. He has had little or no opportunity during his life for stating his opinions on the leading questions of the day. Out of this period since 1884—barely ten years — he has lived in seclusion for two years after the death of his wife; so that he has in reality been only eight years before the public, and not in the House of Commons either. The *Economist* says that "Lord Rosebery's opinions are in most cases a matter of conjecture." It says he has done only two things in his life, but has done them both well. The first was his management of the London County Council, in which he contrived to lead the Progressives and yet escape the abuse heaped on them by the Conservatives. The other was getting the premiership. The manner in which he has stepped into Mr. Gladstone's shoes it considers, under the circumstances, "astonishing."

The conclusion the *Economist* draws from all this is that Lord Rosebery possesses in a very high degree the art of political management. He is, it says, what the Americans call a "placater." He "placates" opposing interests as Thurlow Weed used to do. He brings enemies together, and gets them to be friendly out of regard for him, which is all very well as far as it goes, and he has a grand chance for a little "placating" in reconciling the Irish to his rule. But should he now fail, says the *Economist*, to produce good specimens of "constructive political action," his fall will be as rapid as his rise. But it admits that appearances are strongly in his favor.

Public librarians have naturally been interested in the libel suit in which the trustees of the British Museum were lately made defendants, for having on their shelves certain books alleged by certain persons to contain statements damaging to their reputations. The cabled accounts of the decision of the case were somewhat confusing, not to say alarming. The verdict of the jury was, in fact, qualifiedly in favor of the plaintiffs, the findings being that the books were libellous, and that the defendants, though acting in good faith and under statutory powers, had nevertheless failed to exercise proper care and judgment, and were therefore liable in nominal damages. This was dangerous doctrine, involving as it did the duty of the British Museum trustees to maintain a force of 110 legal experts to go through the books and pamphlets and periodicals received each year to make sure that there was no libel in any of them, and imposing, of course, a proportionate burden on other public libraries. But when the case came before Baron Pollock in the Court of Queen's Bench for a review of the law points involved, he made short work of this novel addition to the law of libel. After premising that there was some evidence in the form of the verdict that "the minds of the jury had not been really brought to bear upon the subject submitted to them," he went on to hold that the essential element of publication was entirely wanting. "It never had been suggested that a person should be made liable because there was a book or books upon a shelf in regard to which the owner did not call attention to particular passages." Still less could such a suggestion be made in regard to a body of trustees, acting under the statute and making no profit out of lending books. The baron therefore entered judgment for the defendants with costs. Execution has been stayed pending an appeal, but it seems impossible that any other decision can be reached in any other court.

M. Jannet has been discussing socialism in the French *Correspondant*. He says there are three varieties of it, State socialism, Christian socialism, and real socialism, and that he prefers the last. State socialism, he says, is the most mischievous of all, because, by its promises and legislation, it excites hopes which cannot be realized, and thus engenders the real socialism at the bottom which throws bombs. The same charge may be brought against the Christian socialism, which is pushed by the young clergy of both the Protestant and Catholic churches. This, too, not only excites among the working classes the most extravagant expectations as to what may be done for them by the State, but it preaches that poverty is the consequence of "injustice"; and as injustice must have unjust people behind it, they learn to look on all the well-to-do—that is, on the saving, the industrious, the provident, the energetic and able—as their enemies, who are keeping them out of something that rightfully belongs to them. This myth is kept afloat, too, in spite of the daily demonstrations before their eyes that it is for the most part want of character or intelligence that brings healthy men to poverty. Of seven sons born to the same parents, educated in the same way, given the same advantages, two or three are almost certain to fail or to become "black sheep" and socialists, and howl for a new "law of distribution." M. Jannet comforts us all with the belief that the reign of "collectivism" or State socialism, if it was ever tried, would not last long, because "the day the collectivists got into power the anarchists would be their radicals." But should we then have to try anarchism and bombs before discarding *their* doctrines? The anarchists are just as sincere as the State socialists; their aims are said to be as high; and if we must try every social system before rejecting it, on the strength of what the prophets tell us about it, the bomb system ought to have a chance. The trouble is, that by the time its failure was fully acknowledged, we should all be hiding in the woods, or among the ruins of our houses, *in puris naturalibus*.

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THE REFERENDUM.

THE opinions of the judges of the Massachusetts Supreme Court as to the constitutionality of an act referring the question of woman suffrage to the people have, upon several accounts, an interest for the whole country. There were really three questions submitted by the Legislature to the court: first, would it be constitutional, in an act granting to women the right to vote in town and city elections, to provide that such act should take effect when approved by a majority of the voters of the State? second, would it be constitutional to provide that it should take effect in any town or city where a majority of the voters approved it? and third, would it be constitutional if it allowed women themselves to vote upon it? As has been announced, four judges answered no to all three questions, two answered yes to all, and one answered yes to the second question alone. It may be added that all the judges answered on the assumption that the Legislature had the power to ordain woman suffrage at municipal elections of itself; and a bill to that effect is now pending. Hence the question of the referendum was really the issue involved, the extension of the suffrage not materially affecting the logic of the opinions.

It was conceded that the Legislature had power to pass statutes that should become operative upon the happening of a future event, and even to do this when that future event was a popular vote. But a majority of the court held that a *general* law could not be conditionally enacted in this manner, according to the authorities, and they therefore replied to the first question in the negative. As to the second question they felt more difficulty, since from the earliest times laws had been passed which delegated to the inhabitants of towns power to legislate concerning subjects proper for municipal control. Such were especially statutes uniting two towns, limited to take effect upon the approbation of a majority of the voters in both, and statutes of the "local option" class, regulating the sale of intoxicating liquors. But the majority of the judges held that a statute enlarging the franchise did not relate to a subject proper for municipal control. It was clear to them that such an act did not relate to the powers of towns and cities so much as to the determination of the classes to be invested with political power. They argued in support of this view that a very anomalous condition of affairs would result if women were allowed in some communities to vote on questions concerning taxation, while in others they had no voice. They added that the principle of local option had nowhere, to their knowledge, been availed of in any of the States where the suffrage had been conferred upon women.

The opinions of the minority of the judges are very short, and, of course, traverse the proposition that a distinction exists between general and special laws. The general position taken is, that the Legislature of Massachusetts has power to enact any law that it chooses, unless that power is expressly or impliedly withheld from it by the words of the Constitution. Hence, it has power to limit its own acts by making them subject to the approval of the people, since this is not explicitly prohibited. Justice Holmes inclines to think that an act would be constitutional which was made subject to the approval of a single man. However this may be, he regards the doctrine that the approval of the sovereign body cannot be asked by the Legislature as an echo of Hobbes's theory that the surrender of sovereignty by the people was final, and he observes that most of the reasoning by which this view is supported is stated in language which may be traced back to the 'Leviathan.' But "Hobbes urged his notion in the interest of the absolute power of King Charles I., and one of the objects of the Constitution of Massachusetts was to deny it."

The position of the majority is most forcibly suggested in the opinion of Justice Knowlton, who answered two of the questions in the negative. Stated briefly, this position is that our governments consist of distinct bodies, legislative, executive, and judicial, and that it is not consistent with this form of government that these powers should be delegated. The Governor ought not to pardon a convict on condition that the people ratify his act, the judges ought not to put a certain construction on the law provided the people approve it, and the Legislature ought in like manner to be held responsible for the laws it passes. Otherwise it might make all its acts conditional upon popular approval, and we should find ourselves living under a pure democracy. Undoubtedly the representative or expert theory of government has been a good deal damaged of late by the inferiority of the so called representatives of the people in all countries having popular government. But it scarcely admits of doubt that still more unfit men would fill these places if the principle were to be established that the people may require all laws to be submitted to them before they become effective. Few persons would care to employ a physician or a lawyer who, having once taken charge of a case, should leave the determination of the successive steps to be taken to the patient or client. In short, if the principle of the referendum is to be introduced, the theory of representative government must be changed. A legislature that simply proposes laws subject to the approval of another body, is not an unknown institution, and was tried with other experiments at the period of the French Revolution; but such a body can have little weight. The pessimistic view may be correct, that no improvement in the character of our legislators is to be looked for, and in that case we might as well try the referendum; but we are not yet ready to despair.

In this connection we may refer to an essay published by the University of Pennsylvania entitled 'The Referendum in America.' The author, Mr. E. P. Oberholzer, extends the word to the submission of constitutions as well as statutes for ratification by the people. Very good grounds, however, exist for maintaining the distinction which Mr. Oberholzer would ignore. It is true that of late years constitutions have tended to depart from their proper form of bills of rights, or bodies of customs and institutions that are placed outside of the sphere of legislative interference, and have contained a good deal of matter which, owing to the fluctuating character of its relations to popular welfare, should generally be dealt with by statute. Doubtless the inferior work of our legislators has promoted this tendency; but it is still legitimate and desirable to preserve the distinction to which we refer.

In the department of statute law it appears that the Legislature has invoked the assistance of the people in dealing with a multitude of subjects. One of the first subjects to be submitted to the popular vote was the location of the State capital, and other buildings are often placed in accordance with the popular expression of opinion. Laws providing for the collection, borrowing, or expenditure of money are frequently conditioned upon popular approval. It is interesting to note, with reference to the question of woman suffrage, that the Constitution of Wisconsin authorizes the Legislature to enlarge the franchise, but only upon condition that the law providing for the change shall have been approved by a popular majority. It is to be observed, however, that most of the instances under this head arise under constitutional direction, and do not raise the question agitated in Massachusetts.

A wide field is entered upon when the powers of the smaller political bodies, such as counties and towns, are enumerated. We incline to the opinion that only confusion results from the attempt to represent the exercise of direct legislative powers by the people of these communities as illustrating the use of the referendum. Whenever the number of citizens is small, representative government is unnecessary; and when there is no representative government, there is properly no referendum. The term implies that some body having legislative powers relinquishes those powers to some other body. It is an abdication, voluntary or involuntary, on the part of

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representatives in favor of the electors. If this is kept in mind, it is evident that a vast deal of half-forgotten lore concerning the difficulty of direct legislation by a democracy will come into use, and will unquestionably be useful. The meddlesome propensity is so strong among men that measures intended to enable them to engage incessantly in the work of legislation can claim no presumption in their favor.

THE NEW LIBEL LAW.

THE full text of the new New York bill about libel for which some of our contemporaries have been agitating so fiercely, was printed on Thursday. It is really a very harmless document. It compels proof of actual malice in order to make libellous the publication of a "fair and true report of any judicial, executive, or other public or official proceeding." It also enables the defendant, in a civil action for libel, to set up in mitigation of damages the fact that he published "a retraction and suitable apology" as soon as his attention was called to the libel, and also that the plaintiff has already recovered damages for the same libel from other parties.

That this makes any change worth mention for the benefit of the newspapers we do not see. A suit against a newspaper for publishing a fair report of judicial, executive, or any other public or official proceedings is almost a thing unknown. The *Evening Post* was once threatened with a libel suit for remarks based on the report of a committee of the Legislature, but the suit was never heard of after the summons was served. We doubt if a verdict for libel has ever been obtained against a publisher for any such reason. Moreover, the present bill simply enables the defendant to offer the retraction and apology, and the damages in another suit, in mitigation of damages in his pleadings. He now always pleads them in his evidence and in the address of his counsel. They are always brought before the jury as mitigating circumstances, and the jury always considers them. The only advantage the defendant obtains from this bill is that of getting the judge to charge them, in addressing the jury; but it is, we believe, a general experience that the judge's exposition of the law in libel suits makes but little impression on the jury. They look at the matter from what Director Ely calls "the broad social standpoint," and consider "its general social effect." We do not, therefore, see what good the proposed legislation will do the press.

Any hardships the newspapers suffer under the present law are due in the main to the prejudices of jurymen. As a rule every jury is prejudiced against the newspaper in a libel suit, because, under the present system of editing, libels are nearly always gross and scandalous attacks on personal character, concocted by careless or mendacious news editors or reporters. The conviction or defeat of an editor for libelling anybody in the discharge of a distinct public duty is rare or unknown. The libels are almost always found in the nasty mess which some of our contemporaries call "news." That they know this, and know that they are engaged in a dirty business, is shown by the care with which they exclude reports of libel suits from their columns. They have entered into a sort of conspiracy against the public, by trying to withhold from it the knowledge that there is redress in the courts for attacks on private character in the shape of the scandalous "fakes" in which some of them indulge. All the courts have such cases on their calendars, and the juries make the defendants smart, but the world outside rarely hears of them. If it did, libel suits would be more frequent.

The kind of law which the press really needs is one which will restore the respect of juries for the newspapers. This is now absolutely dead. The "pictures," instead of restoring it, have added to the stock of contempt which nearly every intelligent man feels for them. They all go before jurymen with a heavy load of prejudice to overcome. Nearly every jury contains a man whom they have annoyed, disgusted, or outraged, and he feels a fierce joy in having a publisher at last under his hand. Nobody wants the libel law changed for the publishers' benefit. Most people would like to have it made more stringent. Here is the trouble. There has probably no change occurred in the modern world so great as the change in the public feeling towards the press within the present century. Fifty years ago everybody hailed it as a wonderful addition to the instruments of civilization and enlightenment. This feeling is totally changed, and not a few even go about asking whether our civilization can resist it. The indictment of his own press that M. Brunetière, the editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, made the other day before the French Academy, was a very mild description of ours. Ignorance and frivolity are the vices of the French press of to-day, to which a portion of ours, in the estimation of our own public, adds salaciousness and silliness. One hears this everywhere if there are no reporters present; and to be sure of their absence, one has to look under the table and in the china closet. A swarm of young men is being trained up all over the country to consider prying and lying and distorting creditable professional pursuits if any fun can be got out of them.

It is this state of public feeling that ails the newspaper publishers, and not the state of the law of libel. Ever since the Shipley case, the law of libel has never hurt any writer or editor. It is the feeling of the juries about his business which hurts him. They take the law into their own hands, no matter what the statute says or the judge says, and they make the dirty gossip smart whether he is malicious or not.

MACHINE GOVERNMENT.

IT is a long time since a Governor of New York has been confronted with such an indictment as the Civil-Service Reform Association of this city has brought against Gov. Flower for his performances with the civil-service law of the State. They charge that he has failed to take care that the law be faithfully executed; that he has himself violated it, and that he has connived at its violation by others. Each of these charges is sustained by an overwhelming mass of evidence taken from official records, and is proved so conclusively as to leave no reasonable doubt of the Governor's guilt.

In support of the charge that he has not taken care to have the law faithfully executed, it is shown that on the first of June, 1893, there were 146 persons illegally holding office in the State service, having been appointed without the examination prescribed by the civil-service rules, and that seventy-eight of these had been appointed during Gov. Flower's administration. It is also shown that these seventy-eight positions constitute 45 per cent. of all the positions in the departments in which they exist that come within the competitive examinations in their class. In support of the charges that the Governor has himself violated the law and connived at its violation by others, it is shown that he has not prepared and caused to be enforced rules providing for competitive examinations; that he has, on the contrary, removed and permitted to be removed from the schedule requiring competitive examinations sixty-nine positions which had been in it for years; that after the State Civil-Service Commission had refused to exempt certain positions from examination, including all of the fifty employees of the Dairy Commission, the Governor personally ordered the exemption, thus being guilty "not only of a marked violation of the provisions of the law, but also of an abuse of authority"; that in consequence of the announced purpose of Mr. Roberts, after his election to the comptrollership in November last, to refuse to pay salaries to persons who held positions in the service in violation of the civil-service act, the Governor has transferred thirty-four employees from the competitive schedule to the exempt and non-competitive schedules, in order thus to legalize their appointments and enable them to draw their salaries.

These are only a portion of the specifications with which the charges are sustained, but they give a correct idea

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of the whole, since they show on the part of the Governor an almost utter absence of any desire to enforce the law. The association, in summing up the case, declared that, "except in the State hospitals and a few minor institutions, the civil-service act has been practically nullified," and that the "violations of the law during Gov. Flower's term of office have taken place with his full knowledge and consent."

These charges, which the judiciary committee of the Senate are to consider, throw a flood of light upon the kind of government which has been administered at Albany since the advent of Hill in January, 1885. Gov. Flower has simply been carrying forward the system which Hill organized and set in motion, and which is, in a word, government by the machine for the benefit of the machine. Nothing is more hateful to the Hills, Murphys, Sheehans, and Flowers than a civil-service law, and they have never been able to look upon it in any other light than as a law to be got around. They "beat it," as their phrase is, whenever they are able to do so, and when that is not possible they violate it directly. It has been shown during the past few weeks that not only has the State service been filled with machine followers in defiance of the civil-service law, but that the number of places has been greatly increased, and that the cost to the State has been steadily and rapidly rising, not merely because of additional salaries, but because of extravagant and more or less illegal expenses which unscrupulous officials have been incurring by straining the provisions of the law.

If we ever get at the full truth about the workings of these eight or nine years of machine rule, we shall have a revelation which will astonish the public scarcely less than did the developments of McKaneism at Gravesend, of Murphyism at Troy, and of Sheehanism at Buffalo. It is absurd to believe that the Hills, Crokers, Murphys, McKanes, Sheehans, and Divvers, whose political methods are found on examination to be criminal, can, when they are trusted with administrative offices, produce a kind of government which is different in its essential characteristics from their politics. Men who nominate Maynards for the bench, and whose methods in political contests lead to the commission of crime, including murder, cannot be expected when in office to have any regard for law, or any nice scruples about the use of public office or of public funds.

AMERICANS AT THE ENGLISH UNIVERSITIES.

CHICAGO, March 10, 1894.

THE army of American students who annually invade the universities of Europe bring home strong impressions and publish them. That they make some impression in return is seldom recorded so directly as it was in Cambridge, Eng., on February 15, when the Senate of the University discussed the report of the council on post-graduate study. The proposal made by the council was that graduates of certain recognized universities, foreign as well as English, should be eligible, after matriculation and three terms of residence in Cambridge, to the degree of Bachelor of Letters or Bachelor of Science, on presentation of a dissertation. The debate on this apparently innocent proposition was shared in by some of the most prominent men of the university, and its tenor was particularly interesting to Americans, for the wandering American graduate has clearly much to do with the disturbance. His objection to entering the university where he would be received only as an undergraduate was pointed out by Dr. Lawrence, lately of the University of Chicago. Dr. Sidgwick (as quoted in the *University Reporter* for February 20) stated that "the demand for facilities for post-graduate study had come mainly from Americans, and therefore they were primarily present to his mind." Dr. Jackson added his testimony: "He received a good number of visits from American students passing through England. . . . Such students never thought of staying to study at Cambridge, because they could get no recognition."

Now, the practical question involved can have but small issue for us, for it is improbable that any change so great as this will be made in Cambridge ways in time to affect any one now living. But while the Cambridge Senate are debating, with some naïveté, whether or not the proposed bachelor's degree would satisfy the student from abroad who has one already by hypothesis, and whether the ignorant world would not imagine that the "Litt.B." and "Sc.B." implied not only as much proficiency but as much residence in Cambridge as the old B.A., it is worth while to notice that the conception of graduate study, of the work of the seminar, is associated in the minds of Cambridge men with foreign students mainly. It is often said in explanation that England, by the pursuit of a literary ideal in education, has cut herself off from the stream of progress which finds its true outlet in the minute scientific methods of the Germans. Thus the fact that so few foreign students find their way into Cambridge and Oxford is certainly related to the fact that so few monographs find their way out. This, it is said, is the reason that, while the Leipzig student is eagerly scanning the horizon for a new thesis, the gallant young army of Cambridge first-class men are marking time, with great flourish of trumpets and every splendor of equipment, after having brilliantly captured the same strongholds in the way of examination that have been as brilliantly captured a hundred times before.

Such, I believe, is the popular view of the case, but scholars know better. No one can seriously assert that the demand for exact knowledge, for a scientific basis on which the æsthetic superstructure may rest, has not been felt as deeply in England as in the rest of the world. It has been responded to by the stream of publications from the university presses, and by the methods of teaching in schools and colleges. On the other hand, the charge of pursuing a literary ideal cannot be fastened on the English educational methods of to-day. It is the fashion in Cambridge as much as anywhere else to prize an author's language above his meaning. Although the English are a literary race, and it is as natural to the ordinary Englishman, with his strong sense of decency in all things, to express himself well as it is to a German to express himself ill, still I should be sorry to think that a system of classical education anywhere could be conducted with less conscious literary purpose than in Cambridge. If it be objected that, after all, more of the graduates of Cambridge turn to literature than of Berlin, the reply is obvious, that if the Germans were sent to Cambridge and the Englishmen to Berlin, the case would be reversed. It is a question of race, not of education. A sheep and a cow may live in the same pasture, but in the one case the grass will ultimately become mutton, and in the other beef. The writing of Greek and Latin verse, which has had much to do with fixing the stigma of "literary" on English methods, is far from having a pure literary aim. When Prof. Jebb points out in lecture that the emendation proposed by a learned German for a line of Sophocles involves a false quantity, the class laughs with a comfortable sense of safety from such slips. It is to achieve this sense of safety, this practical, every-day knowledge of an important and difficult part of the science of the classical languages, that the English student laboriously learns to turn out Greek and Latin verses. But the theory that England's secondary place as an educator is due to a literary bias can in any case apply only to the study of language. In natural science or mathematics whatever work is done must be scientific. Yet it is as true in these departments as in language that the monographs come chiefly from Germany, and that American students go to Germany to learn to produce them.

It is plain, then, that we must look for another reason why England so completely consumes her own educational products. It is, of course, known to every one that English education to-day is governed by an elaborate system of examination, chiefly competitive. Any boy who is going to enter one of the universities, or the army, or the civil service, or a learned profession, is taken possession of by the system from childhood. No one, I think, who has not lived in the midst of its workings can appreciate its effect upon individual students and thus on the whole mass of scholarship. A boy comes up to Cambridge from school when he is about eighteen. He has already chosen his specialty, which will be mathematics if he wishes to enjoy the flower of what Cambridge has to offer, and he has been working at it almost exclusively since he was fourteen. He has become inured to examination already by competing for prizes and scholarships, and his mind has begun to exhibit some of the traits characteristic of the examinee. He is methodical, economical of his time and his tissues, selects for acquirement the facts and ideas that will pay, and then masters them absolutely. His "little-go" once passed, he need never know any more of anything but mathematics. Thus he enters upon the three years' race in perfect training and determined to win. The life of a reading man at an American or German university may perhaps be summarily dismissed by his biographer, for the chief incidents in it are his mental experiences, and his ability as compared with that of other men is gauged, as it is in the world of affairs, by general impression. When he takes his degree, he is perhaps subjected to a formal classification, but this is generally absolute, without reference to other people. In the case of the Cambridge man, on the other hand, the inward life is overshadowed by another of the greatest externality. His career is a drama, depending on the dénoue-

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ment of tripos to make it tragedy or comedy, and freely commented on by the spectators, his acquaintance. By the end of his second year he has pretty well covered the ground of the subjects required for tripos, and the third year is devoted chiefly to revision and trial papers.

This third year is crucial. The student's daily successes or failures are momentous to him and his coach. Dangers are manifold without and within. In the first place, it sometimes happens that, in the strain of this part of the race, the boy outgrows the brilliant precocity which put him ahead of his rivals, and emerges merely an ordinary young man with no further possibilities of use. This disaster is technically known as "going stale," and its symptoms are as marked as those of a physical collapse. Another danger is that, as the man grows up, his brains may be too strong for his will. It must be borne in mind that reading for tripos implies monastic obedience. The student's business is to master what is set before him; the responsibility of selection lies with the coach. The satisfaction of intellectual curiosity must be postponed by any one who has a mind to be a wrangler. To revel in elliptic functions when he ought to be binding his soul to rigid dynamics, is as disastrous as any of the more ordinary forms of riotous living. All these struggles and difficulties may lie in the path of a man who yet has all his heart in mathematics; but the imagination goes on to the case of one who finds he is in for the wrong tripos. A man who has engaged himself to marry the wrong woman is in a comparable dilemma.

However, the third year draws to its close and the crisis approaches. Lucretius, who thought it agreeable to watch the storm-tossed mariner from the shore and the battle from a place of safety, would have found it to his taste to spend a May term in Cambridge, a free man himself but walking with comrades about to go down into the arena of tripos. The reading of the mathematical lists is one of the most instructive spectacles that can come under the foreigner's notice in England. When he bears in mind the nature of the test on which so much depends, that the accident of a headache or disturbing news may outweigh the faithful and successful work of years, that it is by no means certain the best man will be senior wrangler, he cannot but wonder to see how the national sporting instinct has contrived to make the most serious business in life its minister. The senior wrangler's name is telegraphed in all directions, and in twenty minutes he is being talked about throughout the United Kingdom. His success exhibits the combination of pluck and luck so dear to Englishmen, and his little brother at school secretly resolves with swelling breast to do the same when his day comes.

Such is the drama of Cambridge life as it affects the individual. It is a story of adventure, of heroic achievement, of great risk taken, of the possible intervention of chance, and of well-defined success or failure. This sort of story may be told of the lives of soldiers and brokers, actors and war correspondents. It is not unique as a human experience, but when we reflect that it is also a system of education, it seems so remarkable that we cannot help looking to its results and inquiring why it is that the rest of the story may often be told in a sentence: "So he received a fellowship from his grateful college, and lived happy ever after."

The last ten years of a tripos candidate's life have been spent in preparing for examination. There has been no time in that period when he has not had a definite job before him and some one to see that he did it. After tripos this state of things is done away with. It is true he may spend another year in preparing for the "second part," and if he likes he can go in for a series of examinations at the hands of the University of London. But after these are disposed of there is absolutely nothing in the way of examination left for him in this world. If he is to go on with his reading, it must be from those motives of curiosity which he has been diligently treading under foot. To a certain sort of English mind a man who has stood high among the wranglers has attained as definite a place in the intellectual hierarchy as a captain has in her Majesty's service. If he should never do anything more, he will still be held to have done much. His training has confirmed his natural tendency to love an outward visible sign, and a future of self-culture and inconspicuous work looks colorless to him. In this frame of mind it is the most natural thing in the world that he should turn to the fashioning of other wranglers. The profession of coaching is creditable and lucrative. It gives play to the sporting instinct, and furnishes palpable annual signs of success or failure according to the places one's men get in tripos. It is full of human interest and patent usefulness. To this life, then, are attracted the mass of able, persevering, unimaginative young men who, in Germany, would just as naturally fall to the production of monographs.

The more gifted men, those who have been more ridden by interest in their subject for its own sake, who have not ranged themselves so unequivocally on the winning side in the great match of Tripos vs. Curiosity, might perhaps be expected to free themselves from the effect of the system when they are once free of the system itself. But in their case a subtler influence is brought to bear. The first thing that strikes a foreigner in the English system is the preponderance of technique over wide reading. The subjects set for the first part of the mathematical tripos, for instance, are not extraordinarily high or difficult. The "easier parts" of rigid dynamics, solid analytical geometry, and differential equations are the boundary. A foreigner ventures to wonder at first how they manage to put three years' work into such a curriculum; but his wonder becomes admiration when he sees the ideal of dexterity which they propose to themselves. To master the theories of the subjects is the least part of the work. This is briefly and thoroughly done, and then comes the real business of preparing for tripos, the indefatigable solution of problems. The result of this limitation is that what the student knows he knows with absolute certitude, and consequently he is shy of stepping upon ground less firm. The high finish of his training, the standard of perfection which he has been taught to look to, makes any tentative work seem unworthy of such a preface. He does not feel that he has grasped a subject until he has brought his knowledge of it up to examination standard, and at that rate life is not long enough to permit him to traverse the region of the known and reach the frontier of original work. So this sort of man, too, takes to coaching to earn his living, and spends his life in reading his subject, but produces no monographs.

There is left for consideration the class in whom the impulse to produce is irresistible. When these are men of genius, their case need not be discussed. It makes no real difference where or how Prof. Cayley or Prof. Jebb was educated. But there are plenty of men of talent who find expression necessary, as is shown by the constant publication of educational works. It is these works, the admirable mathematical text-books and class-room editions of classical authors and the seductive introductions to science, that chiefly occupy the productive among English scholars. But these books, with all their ability, are mostly written in the spirit of examination and for the ends of examination—not for the world, but for Oxford and Cambridge. One answer, then, to the query, "Where are the English monographers?" will be: "They are translating Aristotle for the Oxford classmen, or preparing inscriptions for the digestion of candidates for Section E, Part II., of the classical tripos."

It is obvious that this preoccupation with its own means and ends makes an English university outwardly inhospitable to the stray foreigner with ends of his own. He is not preparing for an examination, and therefore he has no status. But if he be only determined enough to use the vale of misery for a well, he will find that the spirit of the place as it acts on him is beneficial, for it gives him a new ideal of zeal in harness, a new impulse towards perfection of detail, and a new conviction that the best is good enough for him. An Englishman, then, has as marked a taste for scientific exactitude as a German and as much industry in gratifying it, but he has chosen to make both subservient to artificial ends. He breaks forth into criticisms of these ends from time to time, and when he lays them aside, as some day he must, the Americans will come to work with him, whatever degree he gives them; and lucidity and permanent worth, expressed on opaque paper, will predominate even on the specialist's book-shelf.

EMILY JAMES SMITH.

THE TRADE BETWEEN SICILY AND THE UNITED STATES.

ITALY, March 4, 1894.

WHILE the Government is doing its level best to excogitate methods of economy and, alas, of fresh taxation for the year's budget, which shows 177 millions of deficit, the agricultural and industrial classes are wisely setting themselves to the too long neglected task of striving to reduce the cost of production so as to compete with foreign producers and to reach foreign markets without the intervention of speculators and middlemen. The fresh crisis which has overtaken Sicilian sulphur, after barely two years' respite, has alarmed all those concerned in an industry in which Italy hitherto has maintained her supremacy. Continental and insular Italy furnishes 80-100 of all the sulphur used in the world for agricultural and industrial purposes. Of this quantity Sicily produces 94-100 of the whole, and is the only province which exports mineral sulphur in the rough, *i. e.*, as soon as it is, by smelting or fusing, separated from the ore. The sulphur found in other parts of Italy, especially in Romagna, is refined on the spot (as is some portion at Catania) and sold in "flour," in "rolls," or in "cakes," or simply ground; but Sicily exports some 300,000 tons annually, and the United States have been for some years importers of about one-third of the whole. The expenses of extracting, smelting, and exporting the article are so great that mines are often worked at a loss—indeed, the cultivators say that they cannot really work at a profit unless the price on board in their

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ports reaches ninety-one lire. Prices have stimulated the invention of chemical processes for the extraction of sulphur from pyrites of iron and copper and from other matter to such an extent that, as early as 1873, Signor Sella intrusted Lorenzo Parodi with the mission of studying the entire question—the cost of producing mineral sulphur, the amount of pyrites in the market, and the amount used in the preparation of sulphuric acid. Parodi's report, which fills a volume of 300 pages, resulted in the statement that unless, by the reduction or abolition of the tax on exportation and of royalties, the amelioration of the wasteful systems of smelting, the extraction of the ore by other than hand labor, as costly as it is cruel, the Sicilians could bring down the price of sulphur to seventy-five lire per ton of 1,000 kilogrammes, they would lose the American market assuredly and most of the European markets also.

This prophecy was made just twenty years since. The tax on exportation still remains; the methods of smelting have been improved, but the price of the kilns renders their general use impossible; the proprietors of the under soil still retain rights which in continental Italy belong to the State; the child-laborers increase annually; and if the sulphur trade survives, it is owing to a few factors which could not enter into Parodi's calculations in 1873. The chief of these are the increase in the planting of vineyards, the increase of vine diseases, and the enormous proportions which the preparation of sulphuric acid has attained in the United States. Signor Conti, director-in-chief of Italian mines, made a calculation that, of all the sulphur produced, about 40 per cent. is used in agriculture for diseases of the vines and of cattle; 60 per cent. in industrial operations. The United States, which manufactured only 40,000 tons of sulphuric acid in 1865, now make 580,000 tons, of which it appears that 53 100 is employed in the refinement of petroleum, 35-100 in the treatment of phosphates, 12-100 in other uses of industrial chemistry. For the first two items the pure acid is not required, so it is chiefly extracted from pyrites, of which the States produce 107,000 and import 210,000 tons, consuming in 1892 317,000 tons—thirty-four times the quantity consumed in 1881. Still, the importation of sulphur did not decrease until 1891, the year in which the price rose so high that the cultivators deluded themselves with the fond hope that their woes were at an end, and that Sicilian sulphur could hold its own against all odds. Many mines which produce poor sulphur, or, rather, mineral in which the proportion of the sulphur to the ore is low, were reopened; the number of hands employed rose from twenty-five and twenty-seven to thirty-three thousand in 1892. Calculating a family of miners at four each, adding the numbers of carters, conveyors to the ports, stevedores, etc., we have at the lowest figures some 200,000 of the poor engaged in the sulphur trade. Hence the vast importance for all to secure fresh markets and to preserve their old customers.

The United States in 1861 imported 14,000 tons (of 1,000 kilogrammes); 41,000 tons in 1871; 99,000 in 1881, in which year the price of sulphur on its arrival in America was 180 lire per ton. In 1886 sulphur cost only 100 lire per ton, yet the importation amounted to only 84,000 tons. Then it increased steadily to 134,000 in 1888, to 114,000 in 1889, to 109,000 in 1890. We have no figures for later years of the cost of sulphur on its arrival in the United States, but the extraordinary difference of prices at the Sicilian ports is shown by the following figures for the last twenty-two years (1870 to 1892): In 1870 the price was 120 lire, then 128, 126, 126, 142, 141, 120, 100, 99, 97, 100, 115, 105, 95, 89, 83, 76, 69, 66, 65; in 1890, 77. This was supposed to be the last year of the crisis, and that year the United States imported 109,000 tons. In 1891 the price rose from 77 lire to 112, the United States importing 101,500 tons. In 1892 the price fell to 95 lire, the United States importing 89,500 tons. For 1893 we have not yet the official figures, either of production, importation, or prices, but the cultivators say that the price has fallen 40 per cent., and that, with the exception of the wealthy mines—especially those cultivated by the owners of the under soil, whose exemption from paying royalties enables them to expend their capital in machines for pumping, for the extraction of the material, and on the best kilns for smelting the sulphur—the greater number of mines are worked at a loss, and continue operations only to keep the mines free from water, trusting to better times.

The agitation is now at its height. The *Giornale di Sicilia* has opened its columns to all the competent authorities. The miners themselves, before the dissolution of the Fasci, held an orderly and efficient congress last November. Their demands were for the abolition of royalties, and their temporary reduction to 10 per cent., whereas now they amount to from 20 to 35, the average being 22 per cent. of the *gross* produce, whereas the official report for 1890 showed that, the cost of production being deducted from the selling price, the owners of the under soil received 53 per cent. of the net gains; the cultivators or tenants only 47. Again, the miners demanded the abolition of the infamous truck system, which in many mines binds them to receive a large portion of their wages when, where, and how the masters please. They insisted that the age of children who, allowed to work under ground, are subjected to the torture of bringing up on their backs by steep, irregular steps from thirty-five to sixty kilos of the mineral, should be raised to fourteen. They demanded that the *cassa* (the oblong heap of mineral which they land at the mouth of the pit) should be of the same size throughout Sicily. When an eight-hours' day was proposed, they objected, as they work by the job rarely if ever eight consecutive hours down in the mines, and when prices are low very rarely five days in the week.

The cultivators, whether owners or tenants, at first demanded the abolition of the tax on exportation, which amounts to about one-sixteenth of the whole cost of production. Then suddenly a new current set in. The majority affirmed that this reduction would cause great loss to the State, and would benefit only speculators, who play at raising or lowering the prices, and the foreign purchaser. Many went so far as to demand an extra half-lira per ton to be devoted to the opening of general warehouses. Some demand a syndicate or sulphur trust; others, that the State purchase all the sulphur and fix the price per annum. The one opponent of these schemes is the Marquis of San Giuliano, who was under-secretary for agriculture and commerce during the late Giolitti ministry, and he founds his objections precisely on the fact of the immense importance of the importation of the United States. Long since, in 1888, Signor Conti showed that, though hitherto they have imported all the pure sulphur required chiefly from Italy, and in small quantities from Japan and Spain, there are sulphur mines and indications of them in Louisiana and in Utah. San Giuliano barely alludes to their existence; what he fears is that, unless the price of sulphur is lowered, the go-ahead Republicans will invent new processes for purifying pyrites, and possibly find some better substitute. While approving the opening of general warehouses, he does not believe in the possibility of a syndicate, or the feasibility of inducing all the producers to sell their sulphur to the Trust. Neither does he favor artificial measures for raising the price of sulphur and keeping it at a given price. Whether the State can now abolish the entire duty he does not say, but he insists that it shall at once be abolished *on all the sulphur exported to the United States.* The cost of production he puts, in common with most experts, at 61 lire 90 centimes; by removing the tax there would be a clear gain of 16 lire. But no one seems to understand the uses to which the pure sulphur is put in the United States; hence it is difficult to see how the exporters are to conduct their trade so as to retain the market.

In more departments than sulphur the United States are important factors in the prosperity of Italy and especially of Sicily. Ten years ago the prices of green fruit (oranges, lemons, citrons) imported chiefly from Sicily to the United States, ran so high that the planting of *agrumeti* was regarded as one of the most profitable speculations. As late as 1879 the price per quintal (100 kilos) was 27 lire; in 1887 it had fallen to 18 lire; last year lemon and orange producers were grateful for 12 and thankful for 9 lire. Sicily in 1892 possessed 10,714,342 "green fruit" trees, yielding some one hundred million of oranges, a billion and a quarter of lemons, besides mandarin oranges, citrons, limes, etc. American importation has not yet decreased in quantity, as the following table proves:

Year	Cases of oranges.	Cases of lemons.
1873	737,551	454,035
1883	1,448,057	1,544,220
1892	545,292	2,268,702
1893	1,061,624	2,595,901

"It's the price that kills," say the proprietors. Then the question arises, What does the price depend on? As far as oranges are concerned, probably the competition of home production in Florida and California explains it in part. But we were told, when in Sicily, that the fault lies in great part with the producers, who, since the disease has attacked their plants, have not taken sufficient precautions for its cure, and are also too careless in packing the fruit for export. This complaint was made not long since in Liverpool, where the merchants allege that whole boxes arrived rotten and had to be thrown away. This comes again from the system of middlemen, which is the curse of Sicily. The proprietors sell their fruit to the highest bidder, who sends men to pluck it, contracts for the wrapping, packing, and carting to the nearest station. Now, if the proprietors were themselves to employ the women who wrap and pack, with close supervision so that no fruit damaged by *pidocchi* or other malady, or bruised, be despatched, the higher price for perfect fruit would more than compensate the additional outlay and trouble. No sacrifice can be too great to secure the future of this agricultural product, which, after wine, is the chief, Sicily yielding nine-tenths of all the green fruit grown in Italy. The diseases (*cagna* and *gomma*) which affected the orange and lemon trees in former years were overcome by grafting the plants at the trunk with the bitter Seville orange; but the new distemper, *mitilaspis florescens*, affecting the lemon plant and fruit, seems more difficult to cope with. The lemons affected get brown and shrunken, and although the quality of the fruit is not spoiled, foreign importers object

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to receive them. The exportation to Austria is on the increase since the abolition by the treaty of 1888 of the entrance duty. The half million of cases exported to Trieste in 1879 increased to one million in 1892; but all Europe does not offer so large a market as did the United States, which have also lessened their demand for sumac, owing, it is said, to a new process of tanning discovered in Philadelphia.

J. W. M.

PAILLERON'S "CABOTINS."

PARIS, February 28, 1894.

"CABOTINS" was a very suggestive title to choose, and it gave great hopes to all the friends of M. Pailleron, the fortunate author of "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie," which has been played, I believe, already more than three hundred times. But what is really the meaning of "cabotin"? It is a slang word which was first used for a bad actor, vain and mediocre. We even often say, for short, "cabot," instead of "cabotin." There was once at the Odéon an actor of this sort, called Bocage, who played in tragedy; he had come out after the Revolution of 1848 as a great Republican, and made his appearance at public meetings, where he discoursed upon politics. One evening he was hissed at the Odéon by some students; he advanced majestically towards the front of the stage and asked, "Are these hisses addressed to the actor or to the citizen?" "Neither," said a student; "to the *cabotin*." Bocage was answered and asked no more questions.

The word has since been applied by extension to all charlatans, to all those who live on shams. The field is large, too large for a satirist; you will find the *cabotin*, taken in this sense, in all ranks in society. The professor in "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie" who delivers philosophical discourses to an admiring circle of ladies, and whose real desire is to carve his way in the world, to get places and honors, and to find a rich wife, is no better than a *cabotin*. He makes spiritualistic speeches and talks of pure love, but he becomes very materialistic in his love affairs. We can find the spirit of "cabotinage" (for the word *cabotin* has engendered this last word) even in the Church. If you should go during Lent to hear the fashionable preachers, you would often be shocked at the amount of worldliness which is mixed with devotion and piety. Need I mention the political *cabotin*? We speak no longer of statesmen, we speak of politicians; and what is a politician? He is a political charlatan, a *cabotin*.

The genus is very large, the number of species is endless. It was a bold attempt on M. Pailleron's part to attempt a theatrical satire on the general charlatanism of the time. He was evidently led to it by the success of "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie," a mild attack on a certain sort of charlatanism which is found in Paris in a certain number of academical salons. If he had had in him the spirit of Aristophanes, he would have boldly put political charlatanism on the stage, and models would not have been wanting; he did not dare to do it, and it is perhaps well that he did not, for the task would have been beyond his powers. Pailleron has, in his "Cabotins," kept, if not to the academical world, at least to its frontier. He presents us a foolish old man, whose chief ambition is to be made a free member of the Institute. *M. de Laversée* has a wife, who holds a salon, where her pleasure is to receive indiscriminately all the celebrities, all the rising stars—artists, writers, politicians. She has a large fortune and no children. Such a princess must have a sort of maid of honor, a *dame de compagnie;* she has educated a poor girl and spoiled her by accustoming her to a life of pleasure, of agitation, of absolute worldliness. (Mlle. Marsy plays the part of the girl, and Mlle. Brandès the part of *Madame de Laversée*.) One day, they go together to the Salon, with a great following, as usual, of artists. *Valentine* (Mlle. Marsy) stops before a statue, and declares that it ought to have the medal of honor. The statue is the work of an unknown young sculptor who is meditating before his own work; he hears the interjection and the prophecy of the handsome *Valentine*, and naturally finds her very fascinating. He does not know who she is, but he falls in love at once (what we call the *coup de foudre*).

We see him in the first act in his studio, working from memory at a bust of the unknown *Valentine*. He is unhappy, he is poor, he is in debt. An old *brocanteur* comes to see him, naturally a Jew, well known to all the young artists, who has read in *Figaro* an article on the statue of our young sculptor *Pierre Cardevent*, and he knows that *Cardevent* will probably have a medal. He tempts him with money, and finally succeeds in buying his statue at a very small price. The atelier is filled by degrees with the friends of the sculptor—artists, writers, journalists; they all come from the South, they are members of a mutual-admiration society, the "Marmite," and have periodical dinners.

There is not much invention in this episode of the "vie de Bohême." I doubt if the modern ateliers present many types such as those which were delineated by Henri Mürger. The gayety of the friends of *Cardevent* is somewhat vulgar; they are noisy, and they are not really young; they are sceptics, even cynics, and their cynicism is all the more marked in that *Cardevent* himself is represented as very sentimental, ingenuous, and high-minded. The most exuberant of these young men of the Midi is *Pégomas;* he is a journalist who intends to become a Deputy. (This part is admirably played by Féraudy.) He is a mixture of *Rabagas*, of Tartarin, and of the many types of meridionals which Daudet has so well described—men who are overflowing with animal spirits, shrewd at the same time and exuberant, cautious and extravagant, full of life, of cold passion, of apparent faith, actors and *cabotins par excellence*. Féraudy's part is the best in the new play, and without *Pégomas* the "Cabotins" would be like "Hamlet" without the Prince. *Pégomas*, with his violent gestures, his way of buttoning his coat at the moment of great outbursts of eloquence, of throwing his head backwards, with the sonorous ring of his phrases and his strong Southern accent, forcibly reminded me of Gambetta. But he becomes Gambetta only in the second act; in the first act, he is still a mere journalist who wants to become the secretary of *Laversée*, and he has promised to make his employer not only a member of the Institute, but a Deputy.

Laversée, his wife, and the beautiful *Valentine*, with the gentlemen-in-waiting of *Mme. de Laversée*, visit *Cardevent* in his studio, to compliment him on his *médaille d'honneur*. His friends of the Marmite form a great procession in the studio, with palms in their hands. *Cardevent* is now a great man. Reporters come from all sides to ask for details about his age, his birthplace, etc.; they want his photograph. But *Cardevent* has but one thought: he has recognized in *Valentine* the object of his secret love; she has seen also the bust which he made of her from memory. She is prepared to fall in love with him. *Pégomas* seizes his opportunity and *Laversée* accepts him as his secretary. From this moment *Pégomas* becomes the leading character of the play; from this moment, also, the piece subdivides itself into two: a sort of vaudeville, which never rises to the dignity of a comedy, but often falls into the vulgarity of a farce of the Palais Royal or of the Bouffes, is intermingled with a sentimental drama (or rather melodrama) of the Porte St.-Martin. The transitions are often wanting: we are expected to laugh, and immediately afterwards we are expected to cry.

M. Pailleron has several times attempted to touch the sentimental chord of the human heart, but he has generally failed. The natural bent of his character and of his talent is not in that direction; he is much happier when he follows the impulse of his natural gayety. The heroes of the drama which is interwoven in the "Cabotins" are the young *Valentine* and the sculptor *Cardevent*. The penniless girl who has been brought up in the drawing-room of the *Laversées* has been a great flirt; young men speak to her with extraordinary freedom; she is very imprudent—but she is good and honest at heart, and when she falls in love with *Cardevent*, she is thoroughly changed and becomes very earnest. *Cardevent* is a model of all the virtues, though he lives surrounded by the *cabotins* of the Marmite. He is madly in love with *Valentine*, but he is a good and obedient son, and his mother, a nice old peasant of the South, has very strict notions, and she refuses her consent to the marriage of her son with *Valentine*, because *Valentine* is a natural child.

Madame Laversée has always been jealous of the beauty and success of her lady-in-waiting. She has a lover, a *cabotin* doctor, who follows her everywhere, and one day she finds this impudent doctor making a declaration to *Valentine*. *Valentine* despises the doctor, but she has no time to explain. *Madame Laversée* turns her out of her house. Where shall she go? To the virtuous young sculptor's house, of course, and she asks the sculptor's mother to take her with her to the South. After a decent term of probation, the mother gives her consent to her son's marriage with the unfortunate *Valentine*.

This rather commonplace drama is involved, as I have said, with a vaudeville which at times becomes a political satire, for the object of *Laversée* is to become a member of the Institute, and *Pégomas*, his secretary, has proved that the best way for him to reach the Institute is to be first made a Deputy. *Pégomas* has his own project; he does all the canvassing for the foolish old *Laversée*, he writes his speeches, he sends articles to the newspapers, he gives prizes, he inaugurates public buildings. He goes in person to the South, to the department where *Laversée* is a candidate, and he does so well that his compatriots, seeing only him, hearing only him, delighted with his inexhaustible eloquence, finally choose him as their candidate. Who can resist the dictates of universal suffrage? *Laversée* is angry at first, for he has given all the money for the campaign; but *Pégomas* is so lucky that a place becomes vacant in the Institute, and he sees that it shall be given to *Laversée*. *Laversée* will now be buried under the green palms of the Institute, and *Pégomas*, the great *Pégomas*, will go to the Chamber and astonish the world, as he has already astonished his compatriots, by his eloquence, his wit, and

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his profound statesmanship. He will probably become a minister, and, as such, he will preside at a banquet of the Marmite.

Correspondence.

THE DUTY ON COAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your statement in this week's *Nation* that "The duty on coal . . . affects only a corner of New England" seems not to be correct. In this battle we must "speak by the card," and the facts are that, in the last four years, the States on the Pacific Coast imported about four times as much coal from British Columbia, etc., as was imported by New England from Nova Scotia.

Yours truly, Edwin Brainard.

Chicago, March 16, 1894.

UNIVERSITY WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am glad to see an answer to your correspondent "M. F. K.'s" rather extraordinary letter entitled "Women in German Universities." Women, oftentimes young girls needing chaperones, will go to lectures; they have more leisure than men, and they attend lectures wherever lectures are to be had, largely for that reason. But it is only misleading to confuse such ladies with bona-fide women students—women whose names are either regularly borne on the college books, or are working under definite business relations with particular professors.

I have had considerable experience of advanced education for women, both in this country and in Europe, and I have never heard of any unbecoming or giddy conduct, except the *cause célèbre* in Leipzig some years ago. If any criticism should be made, I would say that the average young woman in college or university takes herself too seriously. Indeed, this criticism may be well applied to women who are "coming on" in all lines of endeavor these days. The *reductio ad absurdum* of it gave us that anomaly, a Woman's Building at Chicago. What women need to learn is, that they have no interests apart from men, intellectual, social, or economic. And, perhaps, it is the sounder education that is going to impress this truth.

I have a little story in point. A definer on one of the ponderous new dictionaries that distract our minds and deplete our purses was an elderly clergyman. He belonged to that generation of men, now happily dying off, to whom women are "females." Naturally, he proposed to define, and did define, "female college." Presently the word came before another definer in the same office, a college-bred woman, who disposed of it with the quiet remark that she saw no need of the distinction. A college is a college, no matter who goes to it.

Léonard Boyer.

New Haven, Conn., March 16, 1894.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I greatly regret to see my statement doubted. It was, nevertheless, a very real experience in a German university lecture-room during the winter of '91–'92. M. F. K.

Northampton, Mass., March 17, 1894.

[The writer is a perfectly responsible and trustworthy witness.—Ed. Nation.]

ZOÖLOGY IN THE STANDARD DICTIONARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When I assumed the charge of the Zoölogical Department of the 'Standard Dictionary,' I surveyed, with all the care I could give, the field before me, and concluded that the wisest course was to admit most of the current family names, in the higher classes at least. The chief reason for so doing was that the family is a large unit, much used in the discussion of morphological and zoögeographical problems, and any one may come up in some important and unexpected connection. For example, the family *Gracilariidæ* (not *Graciliariidæ*, as your printer has made you say) is of interest to horticulturists and arboriculturists on account of its attacks upon the leaves of various plants. One of the best-known species infests the common lilac in some regions, and it has been the subject of extensive studies. It seems to me that the name of a group with such a record deserves the admission it has obtained in a dictionary having the scope of the 'Standard' or 'Century.' The derivatives apt to be used are given in the simple words "*gracilariid*, *a* and *n*," and "*gracilarioid*, *a*," and indicate the peculiar usage of entomologists. Examples of the constant use of analogous names are innumerable. In *Insect Life*, published by the Department of Agriculture, kindred words may be found in every issue.* The function of such words is chiefly to avoid circumlocution. Thus, *gracilariid* is preferable to "a moth of the family *Gricilariidæ*," or even to "one of the Gracilariidæ."

My own desire and deed were to keep out unnecessary words and such as should not be in an English dictionary. Many thousands found in other dictionaries were therefore excluded. Doubtless I have often failed in judgment, but my own action was the reverse of "padding" or unnecessary augmentation of the mountain of words. Theo. Gill.

Washington, March 17, 1894.

JUVENAL READ BACKWARDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the symposium of opinions by the bishops of the P. E. church on the fourth article of the Chicago-Lambeth "quadrilateral" (*Independent* of March 8), appears a letter from the Bishop of Missouri, who winds up with what appears to be meant for a quotation:

"To advocate any practices for the alleged promotion of Christian unity which count out the Historic Episcopate, is simply *propter vivendi causas perdere vitam*."

Put beside this the actual utterance of the old satirist:

"Summum crede nefas animam praeferre pudori
Et propter vitam vivendi perdere causas" (Juv. viii., 83).

Juvenal's clear note of high, courageous, self-sacrificing virtue is distinctly and flatly reversed. We are forced in charity to credit the bishop with a kind of "heterophemy," a momentary lapse of intelligence. Else he speaks as an "incumbent," a placeman, a (mere) official. The old Roman's original "indignation" is infinitely better than the episcopal revision. Y.

*I have counted twenty-seven different names in the last number of *Insect Life* lately issued (Vol. 6, No. 3), and enclose a list with references to pages.

THE INDEX-MAKING CONSCIENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been trying for some years to use the volumes in the series entitled "English Men of Letters." It may surprise the editor of that collection to learn that I have now and then succeeded in finding in one of these books a passage or a reference of which I was in search. Not a volume in the series has an index. There is a table of contents in each; but this is often so brief as to be only an exasperation. I will cite everything that is given to assist the reader in unravelling that tangled skein, the life of Shelley: Chapter I., Birth and Childhood; II., Eton and Oxford; III., Life in London, and First Marriage; IV., Second Residence in London, and Separation from Harriet; V., Life at Marlow, and Journey to Italy; VI., Residence at Pisa; VII., Last Days; VIII., Epilogue. Some of the volumes contain a very brief bibliography or list of authorities, but this is evidently in each case a departure from the general plan of the series.

Recently a new book has come to my attention, interesting to read but difficult to *use*—Littledale's 'Essays on Tennyson's Idylls of the King' (Macmillan, 1893). The work has no index whatever. It should be marked, like Excalibur, on the front cover, "Take me," and on the back, "Cast me away."

Years of vexation have caused me to ask the question, How about the *morality* of publishing books of reference without indexes? A very little consideration for others, an elementary application of the law of love, would seem to be sufficient to arouse in every writer an index-making conscience. A. H. Tolman.

The University of Chicago, March 10, 1894.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are about to publish 'An Island Garden,' Mrs. Celia Thaxter's description of her own at the Isles of Shoals, with illustrations in color by Childe Hassam; and 'Does God Send Trouble?' by Dr. C. C. Hall.

Thomas Whittaker announces 'Addresses to Workingmen,' by Dean Hole.

A translation of Sabatier's 'Life of St. Francis of Assisi' is in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

Frederick Warne & Co. publish immediately 'In Love with the Czarina,' from the Hungarian of Maurice Jokai.

D. Appleton & Co. will issue in the course of next month an English version of Baron de Méneval's 'Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de Napoléon Ier,' remodelled and revised to suit the present rage by his grandson; 'Aerial Navigation,' by J. G. W. Fijnje, translated and revised by Col. Geo. E. Waring, jr.; 'Memoirs of Edward L. Youmans,' by John Fiske; 'General Washington,' by Gen. Bradley T. Johnson, in the "Great Commanders Series"; 'Evolution of the Public School System in Massachusetts,' by G. F. Martin; a revised edition of 'Smith's Classical Dictionary'; 'Creatures of Other Days,' by the Rev. H. N. Hutchinson; 'Aphorisms from the Writings of Herbert Spencer,' selected by Julia R. Gingell; and 'Symbolic Education,' by Susan E. Blow.

The Jewish Publication Society of America (Philadelphia) will shortly bring out the third volume of Graetz's 'History of the Jews,' and 'Papers of the Jewish Women's Congress,' Chicago.

The Baker & Taylor Co. will issue next

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month 'With the Wild Flowers, through the Spring, Summer, and Autumn, from Pussy-willows to Thistle-down,' by E. M. Hardinge; 'The Amateur Aquarist,' by Mark Samuel, Aquarist to Columbia College; 'Christianity Practically Applied,' being a report of the proceedings of the Evangelical Alliance for the United States held at Chicago in 1893.

Charles H. Sergel Co. will shortly publish a 'History of Bohemia,' by R. H. Vickers.

Capt. John Bigelow, jr., Tenth United States Cavalry, has issued a second edition of his 'Principles of Strategy' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). Considerable changes have been made in matter and form. Part of the geometric and diagrammatic treatment of the subject has been omitted, and a condensation of this part of the work has thus been effected without diminishing the clearness or value of the presentation of principles. The space saved has been profitably used by critical analyses of other campaigns of the civil war, in addition to those before given. The work is now issued in octavo instead of the quarto form—a gain in handiness and no loss in beauty. The new edition may therefore be received as an improved one.

'Practical Methods in Microscopy,' by Charles H. Clark, A.M., Principal of Sanborn Seminary (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), is a very compact and handy treatise on the simpler principles of the microscope, with practical lessons in its use. To this is added sound instruction in methods of studying fresh natural objects and those artificially prepared. The subject of the preparation and mounting of microscopical specimens in different departments of investigation is thus introduced, and the chapters devoted to it are more than ordinarily full and valuable. The study of bacteria and their culture occupies a couple of well-digested chapters, and another is given to practical first lessons in photomicrography. The author does not profess to rival the greater standard treatises, but has been very successful in reaching the result he aims at, viz., to make a reliable and useful handbook for the student. Besides a good number of woodcuts illustrating apparatus, etc., a series of very beautiful reproductions of photomicrographs, by the half-tone process, will be found in the appendix.

'Everybody's Guide to Music,' by Josiah Booth (Harpers), is a not particularly successful attempt to condense elementary information regarding music and its composers into 175 pages. The fact that in the biographic portion (headed "The Growth of Music") Handel gets five pages, Mendelssohn four, and Bach one and a half, while Chopin is not even mentioned, shows the writer's absolute unfitness for his task.

'Musical Education and Musical Art,' by Edith V. Eastman (Boston: Damrell & Upham), is a well-printed little book containing essays on "The Language of the Sense," "The Uses of Silence," "Art in Education," "Characteristics of Musical Art," "From the Conservatory to the Kindergarten," "The Eye versus the Ear," "The Voice and the Ear," "Fences and Gates," "The New Education." Those who teach music or are interested in that subject (beyond the mere technique) will find matter of interest in the author's suggestions, observations, and apt quotations; and all American women who would like to possess a musical speaking voice will find useful hints in the essay on "The Voice and the Ear."

Students of harmony as a basis of musical composition may profit by C. C. Müller's 'Tables for the Writing of Exercises in Harmony' (Wm. A. Pond & Co.) as a guide to chord succession. Mr. Müller's principle is that "the best way to study harmony is to harmonize *melodies*."

'The Art of Singing,' by Sinclair Dunn (London: T. Fisher Unwin), is a little book of 117 pages, containing a few chapters on voice production and cultivation, and a few others (on a dozen popular singers) which are called "chats," but are little more than compilations from the musical dictionaries. The author's mental calibre may be gauged from a ten-page list of songs "embracing most well-known classics," in which Schubert occurs only three times, Schumann once, and Jensen and Franz not at all, while the Matteis, Molloys, Sullivans, Balfes, and Claribels are abundant.

Oscar Browning, author of 'Guelphs and Ghibellines, a Short History of Mediæval Italy from 1250 to 1409' (London: Methuen), is best known, so far as Italian studies go, by his article on Dante in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' a fairly good summary of the facts relating to the poet's life and works. The volume now before us is perhaps a useful book of reference, but it is hard to conceive of anybody reading it with pleasure. The author lays great stress on details, but makes almost no attempt at generalization. The result is that no reader, not already acquainted with the subject, could imagine that the epoch thus dryly treated was a great formative period in Italian art, letters, and civilization. The manner throughout is that of the perfunctory lecturer. There are no notes, no preface, no list of authorities, nothing that would enable the student to continue his reading on the subject, or even to begin it in anything like a philosophic manner.

The Players have published, in a most beautifully printed pamphlet, the full proceedings of the memorial meeting held in the concert hall of the Madison Square Garden on the 13th of last November to commemorate the sixtieth birthday of Edwin Booth, the founder of the club. The book is a model of its kind. It contains the minute of the board ordering the commemoration, the list of the committees which carried it out, the card of invitation (printed from the copper plate), the programme as the guests held it in their hands, the speeches of Mr. Joseph Jefferson, Mr. Henry Irving, and Signor Salvini—this last both in Italian and in English as read by Mr. Henry Miller—the oration of Mr. Parke Godwin, and the elegy of Prof. George E. Woodberry. Prefixed is a photogravure of the admirable portrait of Booth painted by Mr. John S. Sargent, and now framed over the mantelpiece of the most frequented room in the club-house which the actor presented to The Players.

The 'Dictionary of Political Economy,' edited by Mr. Inglis Palgrave, of which six parts now compose the first volume, A—E (Macmillan), will henceforth appear only in volume form. It is hardly necessary to say that economic science is at present in a somewhat transitional state, and that many of the subjects treated of in a work of this kind are as difficult to handle to the satisfaction of all as the dogmas of the theologians. There is, however, a wide field to be worked, historical, legal, literary, and biographical; and the digesting and arranging of the material gathered here is enough of itself to give value to such a publication as this.

'Yankee Doodle at the Fair' would have been a fitter title for a work summing up the Centennial Exposition of 1876 than for this small-folio record of the Columbian Exposition just begun to be published in parts by George Barrie, Philadelphia. The title apart, this is the most captivating effort yet made to produce a parlor-table souvenir of the later Fair. The text has been wisely committed to many hands, and takes the shape of monographs, *e. g.*, "Columbus and La Rábida," by William E. Curtis; "The Architecture of the Exposition," by Henry Van Brunt; "The Gobelins at Chicago," by E. Gerspach; with which are intercalated biographies of artists, as, Edwin Lord Weeks and Madeleine Lemaire. The illustrations are largely in color, and as such are at their best in some of the vignettes, initials, and tailpieces. The black-and-white process cuts are fully up to the average level in similar works. The fact that the work is published by subscription probably accounts for the break in continuity of some of the articles we have enumerated. A lack of variety in each part, especially in the first, might have been an impediment to canvassing.

The Department of Philosophy and Education of Columbia College announces the early publication of the first of a series of contributions on philosophical, psychological, and educational subjects that are to appear under the editorship of the members of the department. They are not intended to interfere in any way with existing journals, but will contain (1) the longer and more important dissertations submitted by advanced students in philosophy and education, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of doctor of philosophy; (2) occasional longer and more technical studies by the professors and instructors themselves; and (3) reprints from other journals of contributions made to them by members of the Department of Philosophy at Columbia. The contributions will appear at irregular intervals, and will be numbered consecutively for binding and preservation. They will be under the editorial direction of Profs. Butler and Cattell and Drs. Hyslop and Farrand. The first will be entitled "Friedrich Heinrich Jacobi: A Study in the Origins of German Realism," by Norman Wilde, A.M. The second will be "Kant's Inaugural Dissertation of 1770," including a translation of the dissertation, together with an elaborate introduction and notes by Prof. W. J. Eckoff of the University of Colorado. Orders for these numbers, or requests for information, should be addressed to the Department of Philosophy.

We receive from the Librairie Chevalier-Marescq & Cie., Paris, the first number of the *Revue du Droit Public et de la Science Politique en France et à l'Étranger*. As the title indicates, the department of private law, which is already abundantly cultivated, is not included within the scope of this magazine. The editor very justly observes that many persons outside of the profession of the law have an interest in international questions and in general political science. For these a review of current events and literature is desirable, and this programme includes a survey of constitutional law, administrative law, international law, the administration of justice, penal jurisprudence, financial legislation, individual rights, etc., etc. It cannot be said that this programme errs on the side of narrowness; on the contrary, the danger is that nothing except private law will be excluded. However, a skilfully prepared digest of incessantly accumulating material is always acceptable.

The *Physical Review* for March–April (vol. i., No. 5), published for Cornell University by Macmillan & Co., contains a portrait of the late Prof. Heinrich Hertz, with an appreciative notice.

The most interesting points brought out by

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Mr. R. D. Oldham, the Superintendent of the Geological Survey of India, in his paper on the evolution of Indian geography, published in the *Geographical Journal* for March, appear to be the very slow growth of some of the mountain chains, and the fact that the erosive forces are getting feebler, and in certain places are so feeble as to be inefficient. In these cases, where the streams are "no longer powerful enough to keep their valleys clear," the mountains are gradually being buried under their own débris. There is also an account of a journey in Hadramaut, Southern Arabia, by L. Hirsch, too condensed to be interesting, and a paper by Mr. J. W. Redway, in which he accounts for the treeless plains of the United States, "not because of prairie fires, nor yet of unwholesome conditions of the soil, but from the simple fact that the seeds of forest trees have never been distributed over its surface at fortuitous [*sic*] times." A notice of the second general census of India, taken on the night of February 26, 1891, refers to the remarkable fact that the vast majority of the total of 287,223,431 persons were told in less than four hours. The mean density of the population is 184 per square mile, but it varies from 31 in Kashmir to 522 in Oudh. While in England 53 per cent. of the whole population is found in 182 large towns, in India under 5 per cent. reside in the 227 towns of similar size—20,000 inhabitants and upwards. The increase of population during the last decade was nearly 28,000,000. This is not a high rate, however, for in a list of twenty-eight countries, India stands "twentieth in respect of rapidity of increase of population; New South Wales being the highest and France the lowest."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March contains an account, by Mrs. Lilly Grove, of the Archipelago of Chiloë, a group of sixty islands lying off the south coast of Chili. The inhabitants, numbering 75,500 in 1889, are mostly Indians, and occupy themselves with agriculture and wood-cutting, though some thousands of them go every summer to the mainland to work upon the railways or at harvesting. They are peaceful and industrious, and much attention is paid to their education. In the department of Castro alone there are seventy-three public and private schools, and, out of a population of 36,000, 80 per cent. can read. There is also a paper upon Fiji, by Mr. J. P. Thomson, containing an unusual amount of information in a condensed form. A wonderful fertility is ascribed to the soil. Two and sometimes three crops of maize are harvested annually, and "fifty bushels to the acre is the annual yield, while some soils yield as much as eighty or one hundred bushels." Sugar, copra, and "green fruit" are the staple crops, though attempts are being made to cultivate tea, coffee, and tobacco. Very little cotton is grown, as compared with former years, on account of the low prices prevailing, though it is of a "quality better than can be obtained in any other country." In certain places the Sea Island variety "grows to perfection."

Mention was recently made in these columns of photographs of the pictures in Venice and its environs taken by D. Anderson (Spithoever) of Rome. We have just received Signor Anderson's catalogue, and it contains—not to mention works accessible in photographs of any kind before—the Carpaccios of the Scuola di S. Giorgio ("The Shrine of the Slaves"), the most interesting Tintorettos of the Scuola di S. Rocco, the Academy and the Doge's Palace, the Vivarinis in the Frari, the Lottos and Cimas of the Carmine and S. Giovani e Paolo, the Giovanni Bellini of S. Giovanni Crisostomo—this master's last altar-piece—and all the better pictures in the Seminary; including the dainty Filippinos, and Giorgione's ruined but still enchanting "Apollo and Daphne." At Vicenza, Signor Anderson has photographed Giovanni Bellini's "Baptism," Giorgione's "Christ Bearing the Cross," and Montagna's "Pietà," three of the sublimest creations of Italian art.

The Woman's Education Association of Boston, in order to increase the meagre opportunities for advanced courses of study by college women, offers two foreign fellowships of $600 and $400 respectively. Applications for these fellowships for the year 1894–'95 should be sent before May 1, 1894, to Mrs. N. P. Hallowell, chairman of the committee, West Medford, Mass. Candidates must be graduates of the colleges recognized by the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, or graduates of the Harvard Annex, and should be women who expect to follow permanently professional, scientific, or literary work. It is noteworthy that "satisfactory evidence of thoroughly good health" is one of the requisites for appointment.

We have received from Mr. F. S. King, the well-known engraver on wood, a portrait of Daniel Webster on plate paper, the print being about 11x13 inches. It should naturally be a specimen of this artist's craft, but we are really perplexed to describe it. At first glance it appears to be a steel engraving, in line except the head, which is in stipple and yet almost shows the marks of the lithographic crayon. However produced, it is a very strong and interesting performance, and, being from a life drawing, is a valuable addition to the long series in which Webster has come down to posterity. The figure is a half-length in a characteristic attitude, and the face, though grave, has a sweet and healthy expression. Mr. King's address is No. 306 Fifth Avenue.

—Close upon the heels of the clever article in the March *Atlantic*, "Is the Musical Idea Masculine?" which sets out to prove that women as a sex are, on both physiological and psychological grounds, incapable of originating musical ideas, comes the curious announcement that, at the present moment, all of the students of the violoncello at the Royal Academy of Music, London, are women. The increase in the number of female violinists is also one of the items of current musical gossip in England, where the superb violin-playing of Lady Halle in concert with Herr Joachim has lately been winning unqualified praise. Finally, at the Royal Academy concert a couple of weeks ago, the most interesting feature of the programme was a sonata in E for pianoforte and violin, composed by the Macfarren scholar, Miss Llewela Davies, and pronounced to be a bright, fanciful work, written in musicianly style. Although none of these facts are conclusive against the argument of the *Atlantic's* essay, they at least go to prove that the final evidence as to the musical ability or disability of women is not yet in the hands of the theorists.

—The current issue of the *Astronomische Nachrichten* contains charges of a serious character, prima facie, against the photometric work of the Harvard College Observatory. They are presented by Dr. S. C. Chandler, a professional astronomer of high standing, who maintains that the Photometric Catalogues contain errors so numerous and of such a nature as to rob the work of any claim to high scientific character, while there is grave question whether it has any value whatever. The mistakes were discovered by Dr. Chandler in the course of his well-known investigations of variable stars, and, having become aware of their existence, he felt in duty bound to announce them to the astronomical world. It is within that world that the weighing of the importance of these errors must take place; but as the matter has already been laid before the general public in a Boston newspaper, it may be proper to mention some circumstances which will have to be taken into account. Much is made of the fact that the light of a star is in one case multiplied in the Harvard Photometry by over one hundred. This ratio seems quite monstrous. The fact is, that the star is set down as one of the faintest photometrically measurable, while in fact it is quite invisible with the telescope used. It is so many magnitudes fainter—no matter how many. It was set down as barely visible; it is invisible. If its light had been multiplied a hundred thousand times, the error would be the same, that of recording a star where no star was to be seen. The mistakes which Dr. Chandler has brought to light have probably originated in the telescope being misdirected. It is a very common occurrence in an observatory that, perhaps on a cold night, the assistant, with his eyelids almost glued together with frost, reading by a dim lantern a minutely engraved circle in an awkward position, sets for the wrong star. In ordinary meridian work this is discovered the following morning with certainty, because the observed time of passage will prove too decidedly out. But in photometric work there is no such check; and if the observer, on putting his eye to the telescope, sees a star of about the same brightness that the star he is looking for has been reported to have, he naturally takes that to be the one. This may so easily occur that, no doubt, every possible precaution ought to be taken to avoid misidentifications of stars. Dr. Chandler's charges, therefore, would seem to reduce themselves to this, that the precautions taken were insufficient. Astronomers at present judge of the Harvard Photometry by the degree of its agreement with the Catalogues of Pritchard and of Wolf, which were independently executed. The errors which Dr. Chandler has discovered must, if they affect the whole body of photometric work under Pickering, have influenced the estimate of his accuracy formed from that comparison. If, thanks to Dr. Chandler and other critics, they can be detected and eliminated, the work will have an even higher value than astronomers have hitherto placed upon it.

—Mr. Sidney Lee, editor of the monumental 'Dictionary of National Biography,' encounters obstructionists in curates and parish clerks. His work has reached only the middle of the alphabet, but he has found more than a third of the incumbents to whom he has applied "more or less refractory" in the matter of granting public access to the public records. In many cases no answer was given to his letters, though repeated more than once and with stamps enclosed. Among the answers received, after reiterated inquiries, were the following: "Time with me is too valuable for profitless occupation." The meaning of "profitless" was shown by other answers when nothing more than a date was asked for, thus: "I regret that I cannot give the information required except on receipt of 1s. for the search and 2s. 6d. for the information, *i. e.*, 3s. 6d. in all." To another and repeated application to learn a recent death-date, the reply was: "Call

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at the church at a certain hour on a certain day and we will discuss the question of fees." Thus the desiderated date was ascertained by the outlay of 5s. In another case, a curate, having been paid 2s. 7d. for a date, claimed £3 19s. 6d. for looking it up. He afterward agreed to compound for three guineas, and his extra charge was finally beaten down to £1 1s. 6d. Mr. Lee was indignant at charges always arbitrary and often extortionate, and has recently exposed them in the London *Times*. He holds that search in parish records for literary purposes ought to be permitted at lower than usual rates. The fact is, that English restrictions on the examination of parish records have often hindered the knitting together again of ties between New and Old England which were early snapped asunder. For generations a large proportion of Americans who have crossed the Atlantic have been curious about their ancestry. Some few of these inquirers into ancestry, like James Savage long ago, as well as Col. Chester and his successor, Mr. Waters, came with credentials to dignitaries and dedicated decades to their work. This elect few have had little to complain of. But with the great mass, who were not genealogical experts and without much of time or money to spare, it has been far otherwise. Several of the Massachusetts Willards have investigated their ancestral English annals. One of them reports in the family history that he did not dig very deep, since it was too expensive a luxury. Imperious clerks would allow him to copy nothing, and for abstracts, however meagre, exacted enormous fees. Mr. Lee's grievance is not so much that he is overcharged as that he never can tell how far extortion may stretch.

—As no person of judgment can pretend that the Writings of Thomas Paine are no longer worth reading, intrinsically or historically, the first service rendered by Mr. M. D. Conway in his edition of them is the putting of them in clear and open type (vol. i., 1774–1779, G. P. Putnam's Sons). There are to be four volumes in all, uniform in style with the Hamilton, Franklin, Washington, Jay, and Jefferson, already completed or undertaken by the same firm; and none are more worthy of a place among the literary monuments of our Revolutionary fathers. The first volume contains "Common Sense," whose effect can never be estimated exactly, and may or may not merit Mr. Conway's assertion that it "has never been paralleled in literary history." No doubt can rest upon the extraordinary sale of this pamphlet, or upon its contemporary reputation as invaluable to the American cause. With it are conjoined here the caustic "Epistle to the Quakers" and the polemical "Forester's Letters," now reprinted for the first time, as are the several articles on Silas Deane; while quite new is the letter to Franklin copied from the MS. "The Crisis" is the other famous body of pamphlets embraced in this volume. "The Rights of Man" and "The Age of Reason" are yet to come. Opinions will differ as to the need or worth of admitting to this collection thirteen of the first fourteen pieces, from the *Pennsylvania Journal* and *Magazine*, though their authorship is purely conjectural. The first, on "African Slavery in America," has a show of evidence in its favor. Mr. Conway's introductions and annotations seem to us sufficient, albeit a footnote reference backwards or forwards would now and again be a convenience.

—Two of the three "familiar quotations" made from Paine by Mr. Bartlett are to be found in this volume, beyond which we need not go for the essential qualities of Paine's style, which is too much overlooked nowadays. No writer of the Revolution is more sententious, and it is surprising that a greater number of his sayings have not become household. His metaphors are apt and striking—"literary ornaments," he calls them; and it is amusing to see him drop into them in spite of himself immediately after he has given notice (as on p. 409) that he will avoid them in order to be understood of those who can scarcely read. He knew his good things, and was fond of quoting them, and he felt his superiority as a popular writer to his associates in the cause. With all the occasional intemperance of language pardonable in a heated time, the contents of this volume could win only respect for Paine's character with posterity. His sense, his humanity, his disinterestedness, his independence, his probity, his political "tone," are simply admirable. We will quote a passage which we commend to the *Outlook*, as it recalls that religious journal's grave aberration in the Hawaiian matter. Paine is speaking of "national honor":

"In a Christian and philosophical sense, mankind seems to have stood still at individual civilization, and to retain as nations all the original rudeness of nature. . . . As individuals we profess ourselves Christians, but as nations we are heathens, Romans, and what not. . . . It is, I think, exceedingly easy to define what ought to be understood by national honor: for that which is the best character for an individual is the best character for a nation; and wherever the latter exceeds or falls beneath the former, there is a departure from the line of true greatness."

We shall read later Paine's sincere profession, "My country is the world, and my religion is to do good."

—M. Brunetière has been giving at the Sorbonne an unpaid course of lectures on Bossuet and the movement of ideas in the seventeenth century. The students, dissatisfied that he should have reserved no seats for them, seeing in him a partisan of the old while they are unanimously for the new, irritated because, in the late elections to the Academy, Brunetière had been taken and Zola left, but above all excited by the preparations for the procession of students and washerwomen the next day (*mi-carême*), and glad to get an excuse for a little fun, flocked to the Sorbonne. The call that had been circulated among them deserves to be reproduced: "Grand chahut, chez Brunetière, grand amphithéâtre (Sorbonne). Serpentins, etc. Rendez-vous à l'École de Médecine, à 2 h. moins ¼. On partira en monôme et sans bruit. Faire circuler S. V. P." They came early and filled the galleries. They shouted unmusical songs, threw confetti, *serpentins*, and paper darts among the ladies, and when the professor came drowned his voice. The ladies took up his defence by applauding. Then came an ungallant shout, "Conspuez, conspuez les femmes!" followed by a variant on a Boulangist refrain, "C'est Zola, Zola, Zola-â-â, c'est Zola qu'il nous faut, oh, oh!" When M. Brunetière, after twenty minutes, abandoned the contest, they broke up his table and chair, and, when finally hustled out by the police, they proposed to sack his house and his room at the offices of the *Revue des Deux Mondes;* but the one was too distant and the other too strong for their zeal. The papers condemn the students—they could not do otherwise; but they take occasion to say disobliging things of the victim. They note that, in the confusion, he shouted, "Je ne savais, messieurs, qu'il était *encore* mi-carême," meaning to say *déjà*—a slip of the tongue unpardonable in a severe critic. They give little biographical sketches of him which are not precisely intended to win for him the sympathy of the public. His character is disagreeable and *grincheux*—the usual attribute of lack of power. Finally, his election to the Immortals was the consequence partly of private influence, partly of a desire to favor the *Revue des Deux Mondes*.

—Under the general and, many will think, appropriate title "Le Naturalisme, ou l'Immoralité Littéraire," and under the specific title 'Émile Zola, l'Homme et l'Œuvre,' M. Antoine Laporte, who appears to be his own publisher (Paris), gives us an arraignment of Zola, his methods, and his school, which, though strongly tinged in many places with partial antipathy, expresses what is surely a deep and general feeling. That feeling is one of disgust at the success which Zola's abominations have obtained in Europe and America—for in respect of eager reading of his works Americans are not, it is to be feared, much behind the French. That Zola has marked ability as a writer, that there are passages, many passages, in his books of undoubted force and beauty, that he has the gift of impressing on the mind a sense of vastness and multiplicity, no one will deny. In 'Germinal,' in 'L'Œuvre,' in 'La Débâcle,' in 'L'Assommoir,' there are pages which prove his power, but in comparison with the remainder of his work these pages are few and scattered, and wholly inadequate as redeeming features. In vigorous language M. Laporte denounces a naturalism which "is not merely the art of tickling and exciting the depraved tastes of the public, but of heating and surcharging its sensual appetites to the point of hysteria, of erotic madness." His work is a healthful sign of reviving morality, and will be read with interest and sympathy by very many.

GOLDWIN SMITH'S POLITICAL ESSAYS.

Essays on Questions of the Day, Political and Social. By Goldwin Smith, D.C.L., author of 'The United States,' 'Canada and the Canadian Question.' Macmillan & Co. 1893.

Mr. Goldwin Smith is a writer whom it is very easy to criticise and very difficult to review. It is easy to pick out his hasty deductions and impetuous conclusions, array them, riddle them, ridicule them, but difficult to depict the length and breadth of his studies, his wonderful memory, his clear presentation of things historical and political, without at the same time countenancing the mistakes which he makes in dealing with his own knowledge. He was always an independent thinker; with age he seems to have grown fond of crossing the ideas of all other men on all subjects, and of augurring the worst result from any given present condition of affairs. But, whatever his errors of deduction, Mr. Smith fairly states the premises. If the reader has head enough to draw his own deductions, he will find the book whose title we give above most interesting and instructive. We have before us a review of it by Principal Grant in the Toronto *Week*, which may be said to be an indictment of twenty-four counts; but all and each of these counts go to conclusions and deductions. The writer well says, "It is the inconsistency of Dr. Smith's language rather than its inaccuracy that I wish to point out."

Even with these limitations understood, it is startling to find a man of Mr. Smith's years—

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an educated, intelligent, cultivated man, who has been a professor in one of the chief universities of the world and in one of the largest universities of America—calmly looking forward to civil war in the most stable empire of the modern world, and (more paradoxical still) contemplating it as a right and duty, as the lesser of two evils. This civil war will not be dynastic like the Wars of the Roses; nor religious like that of the Roundheads and Cavaliers; nor sectional like our war of secession; but a war of classes—the French Revolution over again, with this radical difference, that the revolutionists will embrace the wealth, property, education, intelligence, rank, and nobility of the kingdom. In other words, the stable, cautious, conservative elements of society will take the part of the Jacobins, and the lower classes that of constituted authority. That we may not misstate his position we quote what he says:

"The Newcastle programme, drawn up to gain votes, raises issues which together would be enough to bring on a revolution. In America civil war ensued upon a presidential election, which corresponds to the general election in England, and was its natural result. No country can bear for ever these convulsions, which grow more violent as the suffrage is extended, and more frequent as the exercise of the prerogative of dissolution becomes more unrestrained" (p. 120).

"People are not bound to fold their arms in tame submission when they can prevent the cruel indulgence of class hatred, public rapine, or the dismemberment of the nation, any more than they are bound to fold their arms in tame submission when the tyranny of a despot becomes insufferable. There are international situations, though few, out of which the only exit is war. There are domestic situations, far fewer still, out of which, as Mirabeau saw, the only exit is civil war or the display of a determination to face civil war rather than suffer the extremity of wrongs" (p. 123).

"Civil war is a dreadful thing; but there are things even more dreadful than civil war. Submission to the dismemberment of the nation by the sinister machinations of a morally insane ambition, would in the end work more havoc than the civil sword. 'I am prepared,' said the constitutional and cautious Peel, 'to make the declaration which was made, and nobly made, by my predecessor, Lord Althorp, that, deprecating as I do all war, but above all civil war, yet there is no alternative which I do not think preferable to the dismemberment of this empire'" (p. 306).

The causes which are carrying the British Empire towards some great political convulsion, according to Mr. Smith, are two-fold: first, there is the tremendous upheaval in which the combining forces are philanthropic, sentimental, demagogic, agrarian; second, there is the defective condition of the British Constitution, undefined, inoperative, in parts defunct—a constitution which has been amended by abandoning fundamental safeguards without putting substitutes in their stead; a constitution ill-adapted to withstand a shock or bear a strain; weaker than the constitution, written or unwritten, of any people in the world. Nominally, the government consists of an independent executive and two legislative bodies, each a check upon the others. In fact, the power of the executive has passed to the ministry; the ministry is but a committee of the House of Commons; the House can turn the ministry out of office at any moment; the ministry can turn the House out of office by dissolving Parliament; the authority of the Lords is becoming as obsolete as that of the Crown; the existence of the judiciary is absolutely dependent upon the will of Parliament.

It is refreshing here to turn from this disorderly medley and view our own constitutional situation as it is admirably depicted by Mr. Smith:

"The people of the United States have a written Constitution which emanates from themselves and is the subject of their profound reverence. They have a Supreme Court to guard that Constitution. They have a President whose veto is a salutary reality, and whose authority is being signally displayed at the present juncture. They have a Senate, elected on a principle comparatively conservative, and really coördinate as a legislative body with the popular House, whose bills it amends or throws out without fear. The federal structure of their commonwealth, like that of a ship in compartments, is a safeguard against any sudden flood of revolution. In their Constitution is an article forbidding legislation which would impair the faith of contracts" (p. 91).

On the Irish question Mr. Smith's opinions are well known and are as extreme as those of Lord Salisbury. His chief grievance is that the home-rule bill is not really a law, but an amendment of the Constitution; that it is dismemberment without the consent of a majority of the people of England, Scotland, and Wales, or of a majority of their representatives in Parliament; that it is secession without the consent of the North. He does not believe in the fitness of the Irish for self-government—nay, more, he holds that they were never fit to govern themselves and never will be. He includes the whole Celtic race in his distrust, and quotes Mommsen and Bishop Lightfoot, and goes back to the time when St. Paul exclaimed, "O foolish Galatians." But certainly there are vast differences in the Celtic races of to-day. The French peasant, if we may judge from the portraiture of French realistic fiction, is mean, miserly, selfish, reticent, distrustful, with large bumps of acquisitiveness and secretiveness. Like his cousins in Canada, he cares little for government or dynasties, and is solicitous only in regard to his church and the tax-gatherer. The Welsh peasant is industrious, thrifty, contented, heartily loyal, yet has so much truly national spirit in him that he has held fast to the language of his fathers, hearing it from the pulpit and reading the news of the day in papers published in his ancient tongue. The Irish we know pretty well, and how he differs from the others.

The essay on the British Empire and that on Church Disestablishment will seem to American readers fair, reasonable, and just; yet there is hardly a class of English or Canadian readers whose views they will not cross. To Canadians especially the former must be exceedingly rasping, bringing into view as it does the extraordinary want of unity that exists in the Dominion—an English Canada, a French Canada, an American Canada, an aristocratic Canada, a democratic Canada, a demagogic Canada. It deals, too, with all of the scandals and mistakes of the Canadian Government. It speaks of the Governor-General of Canada as a sham, and calls "her mimic aristocracy, her baronets and knights, a political outpost of monarchical and aristocratic England on the territory of American democracy." But the reader will not find anywhere in the same number of pages a clearer view, historical and political, of the British Empire.

The most valuable essay in the book is that on Social and Industrial Revolution. The reader who desires to see with his own eyes the field of nationalism, socialism, combinations, unions, strikes, etc., will find its clear-flowing, illustrative style most interesting reading, and will be saved much research if he really intends to examine the subject for himself. As we have before said, the errors of Mr. Smith are chiefly those of deduction; but here there are points, and very strong points, of which he has not made enough. For example, he says:

"Strikers should never forget that they are themselves buyers as well as producers, and therefore employers as well as employed; so that if they can strike against the rest of the community, the other trades can strike against them, and, wages being raised all round, nobody will gain anything."

The proposition which is here intended is, that if the remuneration of all the manual laborers in the world were doubled instantly, the cost of all the products of manual labor would soon be doubled, and the result would be the same. The striker would have to pay twice as much for everything he bought; his money would be doubled, but its purchasing power would be halved; it would be but a new form of inflation. It is idle, however, to tell strikers that they "should never forget" this. And it is not true in their case. It is like telling a small band of monopolists that they "should never forget" that the rest of the world can form monopolies and make them pay as roundly as they are making us. They are ahead in the race; they have doubled their remuneration while the rest of the working-world have been looking on in a vague, sympathetic belief that strikes of organized labor will somehow or other benefit themselves, and in utter ignorance of the fact that it is they themselves who are, for the most part, paying the augmented wages. Again, Mr. Smith says that it is really the consumer and not the employer who pays the increase of wages. He should have brought out the fact that the employer of to-day is being ground between two stones, the strikers insisting on putting wages up, the purchasers insisting on buying where they can buy cheapest. Who has ever heard or read a sermon in which the clergyman told his flock that when they get ready to pay Christian prices, they will find employers ready to pay philanthropic wages?

Mr. Smith speaks in the above extract of "the other trades," and he frequently alludes to trades, artisans, railroad hands—in short, to organized labor, as if it embraced all workingmen. We know that he does not really mean to convey that idea, but his uninstructed reader will not look behind his words for his meaning. When we take into the account the masses of unorganized laborers whose pay is ordinarily about one-third that of the artisan class, and the small farmers, gardeners, etc., who are not employers or capitalists, but get their wages out of their work, and the legion of women workers who struggle hopelessly at the foot of the ladder, we find that strikers are but a small fractional part of the mass who live by manual labor. When we look further into the operations of the "trades," we find that they are monopolists of the most selfish and exacting type, who have organized to exclude other men from honest work, and to exact tribute from every class of men who earn their bread by the sweat of their brow. The greatest of the wrongs which exist in this country is the repression of the lower strata of manual laborers; their exclusion from better-paying pursuits; the denial to them of the constitutional right of every man to seek unmolested his own advancement.

This has not been brought out in the essay as fully or as strongly as Mr. Smith could have portrayed it; and it is a wrong of which the public are strangely ignorant, or as to which they are more strangely indifferent. A few years ago a poor woman ran about the streets of Washington soliciting "influence" to obtain, not an office or a pension, but the poor privilege of apprenticing one of her boys to a bricklayer *who was willing to take him*. And it was refused her, ruthlessly, tyrannically; and to this day that American boy, after having heard much encouraging talk in a public

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school about the inestimable birthright of being an American boy, and after living within the hearing of the speeches of members of Congress concerning their love for the working classes, and their abhorrence of capitalists, corporations, millionaires, monopolists, and employers in general, has not been allowed to earn his bread by laying bricks. The woman is dead now: hard work and many disappointments, anxieties, and cares dragged her down; but to her dying day she cursed trades-unions as despots who had mercilessly degraded her children to the lowest caste, and blocked against them every accessible avenue of advancement. Philanthropic ignorance pats these monopolists on the back, rejoices that they are elevating themselves, and tells them to keep on, but in a lawful way, *i. e.*, without riots or breaches of the peace. The worldliness of the world is indeed exemplified by its action in the field of manual labor. It serves power. The stronger are helped and encouraged and coddled; monopolies as odious as any of those against which the Parliament of Elizabeth revolted are upheld; the really poor and deserving—agricultural toilers who furnish city artisans with wheat at sixty cents a bushel, women who furnish ready-made clothing with no eight-hour limit to their toil, men who do the most wearisome part of the work at one-third of the others' wages and with the hope of better things shut out—these receive much commiseration and some alms, but scarcely a defensive word, from the demagogue in Congress up to the minister in the pulpit. This thing is the Slavery of to-day.

BISMARCK CONTRA CORONAM.—II.

Das Deutsche Reich zur Zeit Bismarcks: Politische Geschichte von 1871 bis 1890. Von Dr. Hans Blum. Leipzig and Vienna: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1893. Large 8vo, pp. xx, 708.

THE death of William I. in 1888 and the accession of the Emperor Frederick in no wise affected the Chancellor's position. Bismarck's most persistent enemies, the Prussian Clericals and Tories, could expect no favor from so liberal a monarch; and the advanced Liberals, who constantly asserted Frederick's sympathy with their aspirations, appear, from Dr. Blum's statements, to have exercised little influence. The only serious conflict of the dying Emperor's brief reign was due to the scheme of a marriage between one of his daughters and Prince Alexander of Battenberg—a scheme, we are told, of English origin, strongly supported by the two Victorias. Bismarck declared that such a marriage would seriously compromise Germany's relations with Russia. An English attempt to obtain a contrary statement from the Russian court failed, and the Emperor decided against the marriage.

With the succession in the same year of William II., Bismarck's position seemed assured him for the rest of his life. He himself, we are told, had no doubts on this point. But the restless ambition of the young ruler soon made him chafe under the Chancellor's somewhat dictatorial counsels. It is clear that Bismarck regarded the new Emperor as an apprentice in statecraft—a pupil of promise, indeed, who might some day be "his own chancellor," but not until the death of his preceptor; and it is equally clear that William soon began to entertain the idea of an earlier emancipation. There were many who stood ready to suggest it. Military, Conservative and Clerical "under-currents" were again in evidence. For a time it was Count Waldersee, Moltke's successor as chief of the general staff, who was to be Chancellor, but the subterranean operations in his favor were checked by some mysterious countermine, and he was assigned to a departmental command.

Cases of "friction," however, between the Emperor and the Chancellor grew frequent; and the latter became aware that certain members of the Prussian ministry were working against him. He demanded that the cabinet order of 1852, according to which the Prussian ministers were to report through the President of the ministry and not directly to the monarch, should be enforced. This demand the Emperor met with a proposal to revoke the order in question. To this proposal, conveyed through a "confidant," Bismarck refused his ministerial assent, "in some such words," says Dr. Blum, "as the following":

"'If the King desires to limit Prince Bismarck's powers as Prussian Minister-President, his Majesty must himself act as Minister-President, of which office, as a matter of fact, his Majesty is already exercising the powers.' The Emperor responded . . . that he had no idea of himself assuming the position of Minister-President, and demanded from Prince Bismarck a memorial on the subject" (page 668).

The relations between the monarch and the minister were obviously strained to the point of breaking. They actually broke on a matter of slight intrinsic consequence. In the elections of February, 1890, the governmental majority of Conservatives and National Liberals had been converted into a minority, and Bismarck saw himself forced to reopen negotiations with the Centre. For this purpose he had an interview, on the 12th of March, with the Centrist leader, Windthorst. Of this interview and the events which followed, the discreet Dr. Blum gives an account in hypothetical form. "It is not improbable," he says, that Windthorst offered, on certain conditions, not only to support the measures of the Government in Parliament, but also to support the Chancellor "even in differences of opinion between the latter and his imperial master." "The assumption is equally well founded" that Prince Bismarck declined to enter into any such alliance. Distorted accounts of the interview were almost immediately carried to the Emperor. Among other untruths, it was represented that Bismarck "had shown himself not disinclined to an alliance with the Centre against the Emperor." The Emperor immediately sent the chief of his civil cabinet to the Chancellor to demand, for the future, preliminary notification of any political interview between the Prince and members of Parliament. Bismarck refused to give any such promise. Early on the morning of March 15, before Bismarck was out of bed, the Emperor came to see him. A stormy scene followed, in which the Emperor demanded information regarding the negotiations with Windthorst, and was met by a point-blank refusal. The matter was a private one, so far as Bismarck was concerned, and the commands of his royal master stopped at the threshold of his wife's drawing-room. The interview closed with a statement, by Bismarck, that he had retained his official position thus far only because of a promise to William I., and was ready to give it up whenever the Emperor desired.

Early on the 17th of March the Emperor sent word that he was waiting for Bismarck's resignation. The Prince refused to resign, on grounds of conscience and of self-respect. He did not think it right to abandon his post in the existing position of European affairs, and his resignation would present "a false historical picture of the facts in the case." The Emperor must dismiss him. A second messenger came, in the course of the day, with a direct order from the Emperor that the Prince should send in his resignation within a given number of hours. At the same time Bismarck was informed that the Emperor intended to make him Duke of Lauenburg. The Prince responded that he might have had that title before if he had wished it. He was then assured (referring to the grounds on which he had previously declined the title) that the Emperor would pledge himself to secure such a legislative grant as would suffice for the proper maintenance of the ducal dignity. Bismarck declined this also, declaring that he could not be expected to close such a career as his had been "by running after a gratuity such as is given to a faithful letter-carrier at New Year's." His resignation, of course, he would send in as soon as possible, but he owed it to himself and to history to draw up a proper memorial. This he took two days to write. It was a detailed explanation of the reasons why he had refused to resign save at the express command of his monarch. He has since repeatedly demanded the publication of this memorial, but without success. This whole narrative (pages 668–670), in spite of its partly conjectural form and the standing qualification of "somewhat as follows" which precedes every citation of Bismarck's language, is of course Bismarck's own account of the causes and details of his dismissal.

On March 20, the Emperor, in a most graciously worded letter (which was immediately published), accepted Bismarck's "resignation." He had learned "with deep emotion" of Bismarck's resolution to retire from active service. He was compelled, "with a grieved heart," to accept the resignation, because he saw, from the reasons given, that it would be useless to try to induce the Prince to reconsider his decision. At the same time the Emperor conferred upon Bismarck the title which the latter had twice declined (and has since persistently refused to use), and also promised to send his own "life-size portrait." What disposition Bismarck has since made of this work of art we are not informed. The immediate nomination of his successor forced Bismarck to quit the Chancellor's official residence in such haste that, as was stated a few months later in a German newspaper, it was impossible to pack his effects properly, and many articles of value were irrecoverably lost. "Bismarck himself compared his exit to the expulsion of a German family from Paris in 1870."

In this catastrophe it appears that no feminine influence was at work. We are expressly told that the present Empress was sincerely attached to the Chancellor. In her childhood, indeed, the Princess of Schleswig-Holstein, whose father Bismarck had deprived of a confidently expected crown, had been taught to regard him as a bogy; her French-Swiss nurse used to frighten her with "Bismarck is coming!" But before her marriage she had learned to admire him, and later she had come to hold him in the highest esteem. Dr. Blum cites a speech of hers, made before the death of William I., in conversation with a member of the Imperial Parliament:

"May the German people never forget their proud history. Their illustrious Emperor and their great Chancellor are still living; if they are always mindful of the love and reverence which they owe the former, and of the gratitude to which the latter has so just a claim, it will be the better for us and for our future. The time will come when the proud but true

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words of an English King, 'Now they revile me, but when I am dead they will wish to dig me out of the ground with their nails,' will be applied to Bismarck. May that time be long in coming."

Introduced immediately after the story of Bismarck's dismissal, and without comment, this citation is unquestionably an effective bit of polemics; but it is a pity that Dr. Blum and his patron could not have denied themselves the pleasure of this thrust. Not even in criminal procedure is it permissible to use the testimony of a wife against her husband.

In the concluding chapter the ensuing public conflict between Bismarck and the crown is described *in extenso*. The Prince's weapons were inspired editorials and personal interviews. Those of the Emperor were circular notes and threats of prosecution; the omission of even formal invitations to public ceremonies, and requests to foreign courts to withhold from the Prince even social recognition; and, finally, a withdrawal of favors and privileges from all Bismarck's friends and admirers. His special historian, Von Poschinger, found himself excluded from the state archives; and the great historical work of Von Sybel, the keeper of the archives, was interrupted before it reached its natural conclusion. These writers had already found cause to praise Bismarck, and would probably have found more.

Dr. Blum defends Bismarck's caustic criticism of the imperial policy on grounds of patriotic duty, and he roundly denounces, not the Emperor, of course, but his responsible advisers, for the ingratitude and malevolence displayed by the crown. To outsiders it seems a pitiful affair on both sides. It is impossible to acquit William II. of all the charges brought against him, but it is equally impossible not to regret the undignified and inconsistent attitude of the ex-Chancellor. A life like Bismarck's, characterized by zealous loyalty to his king and filled with extraordinary services not to his country alone but to the dynasty, should not have closed in an open conflict with the crown and attempts to make its wearer contemptible. The German people, the great majority of whom are sincerely loyal to the monarchic principle and justly proud of Bismarck's public career, may well rejoice that so unseemly a strife has now been ended.

Essays about Men, Women, and Books. By Augustine Birrell. Charles Scribner's Sons.

One of the charms of Mr. Birrell's essays, for people who have opinions of their own, is their casual air. His most polished performance—the two volumes entitled 'Obiter Dicta'—is more like a sequence of happy accidents of thought than a premeditated judgment intended to be authoritative. He may go gloriously wrong with impunity because he is so far from posing as infallible, or from assuming that he speaks the last word. He has no theory to expound, and no pet philosophy to the illustration of which all facts are to be warped. The only opinion especially dear to him is that literature ought to do more and better than instruct and edify; that its mission is to please, to solace the weary, to humanize the wicked—in fact, to be an everlasting comfort and joy in this frequently uncomfortable and joyless world. His work forms a convincing tribute to his discrimination in selecting for positiveness an opinion he was so well prepared to live up to; it is so agreeable and so polite. We cannot imagine him unpleasant or uncivil, unless to the soulless wight who should assert that Dr. Johnson was neither great nor good, and that all Charles Lamb's splendid virtues of character go for naught in face of the disgraceful fact that he occasionally got drunk. He can differ and disapprove without a scowl or a volley of vituperative adjectives. Though not enraptured with the little book 'Americanisms and Briticisms,' the harshest thing he finds to say about it is:

"To try to make an international affair over the 'u' in honour and the second 'l' in traveller is surely a task beneath the dignity of any one who does not live by penning paragraphs for the evening papers."

About the same author's fervent appeal to good Americans to remember, always to remember, that the British are foreigners (an appeal which leads us to suppose that he is holding Sir Walter Scott and other innocent scribblers responsible for British gold and the Cobden Club), Mr. Birrell only exclaims: "What rant is this!"

No more deeply in love is he with Marie Bashkirtseff, yet he lets off that garrulous person, in whose presence ordinary decency shrinks away abashed, with a smile at the interest she took in her "arms and legs, hips and shoulders, hopes and fears, pictures and future glory." If Miss Bashkirtseff were still alive, we should have resented Mr. Birrell's mildness, but, fortunately for her mother and aunt and maid, she is dead, and the people who compared her with Rousseau must perceive that, though she had a glibness in self-revelation comparable to Jean Jacques', and was to the full as untrammelled by notions of propriety, she had not for several reasons his staying power.

Miss Hannah More is the only other woman noticed in the volume. There is something humorous in the juxtaposition—*les extrêmes se touchent*. Most of us are sadly familiar with the class to which Miss Bashkirtseff belonged; it was not the class to which Mr. Birrell relegates the verbose Hannah:

"This class may be imperfectly described as 'the well-to-do Christian.' It inhabited snug places in the country, and kept an excellent, if not dainty table. . . . Its pet virtue was church twice on Sunday, and its peculiar horrors theatrical entertainments, dancing, and three-penny point. Outside its garden wall lived the poor, who, if virtuous, were for ever courtesying to the ground or wearing neat uniforms, except when expiring upon truckle-beds beseeching God to bless the young ladies of the Grange or the Manor House, as the case might be."

If an imperfect memory of books permitted to be read on Sunday and never voluntarily opened on any other day is not too treacherous, it was on this class that Miss More fondly lingered through nineteen volumes, and we cannot agree with Mr. Birrell that the lot was cheap at eight shillings and sixpence, unless he found therein the story of the old lady's cruel deception by her presumably adoring menials.

The stories the author is constantly telling about the object of his discourse are the best proof of his fitness; this is the last touch of intimacy. It is to be regretted that he has not told more stories of the famous dead—that when he chose to write at all of Swift, for instance, he had not chosen to write more. It is a fault in some of these latest essays that they are too casual, and that the chain of thought is not smoothly linked. The essays on Sterne and Gay are mere notes, in which, we think, more than justice is done to the former and less to the latter. Mr. Birrell says, though with hesitation, that 'Tristram Shandy' is one of the most popular books in the language. Granting his limited understanding of "popular," his exclusion of that public which he remarks somewhere gets its "intellectual like its lacteal sustenance sent round to it in carts," from Mudie, such a statement is enthusiastic. More praise might easily be given to Gay's originality, since in "The Beggar's Opera" he is a genuine creator, and, though possibly better men and better poets may have been denied burial in Westminster Abbey, it is not likely that any better loved man lies there. "Gay," says Thackeray, "was lazy, kindly, uncommonly idle, rather slovenly, I'm afraid; for ever eating and saying good things; a little round French Abbé of a man, sleek, soft-handed, and soft-hearted." Nevertheless, even when he had ceased to be amusing, everybody, including Swift and Pope, loved him. Nobody, so far as we know, has tried to solve the mystery of Gay's hold on the affections of his contemporaries. Yet it is a much more cheerful subject for the speculative than is the mystery of the classic rage of the Dean of St. Patrick. Mr. Birrell says that the mystery and the misery of Swift's life have not been got rid of by his latest biographer, Mr. Collins. We agree with Dr. Johnson that the mystery of facts may, without regret, be left in that obscurity in which Swift delighted to involve them, and would also, were we not privileged to be a contemporary of M. Zola, echo the doctor's grave wish to be informed what there is in deformity, disease, and filth that may attract the human intellect delightedly to dwell upon them. But for the mystery of character which puzzled Scott and Thackeray, and baffles Mr. Birrell, is it not pretty well dissipated by reflection on the conflict between Swift's nature and his conditions? Thackeray, in his incomparable presentation of Swift, seems to have unconsciously disposed of his mystery:

"It was at Shene and at Moor Park, with a salary of twenty pounds and *a dinner at the upper servants' table*, that this great and lonely Swift passed a ten years' apprenticeship—wore a cassock that was only not a livery—bent down a knee as proud as Lucifer's to supplicate my lady's good graces, or run on his honor's errands."

A man of intellect as great, but of gentler temperament, might have forgotten the man and forgiven the God who had subjected him to such ignominy, might even have wrung from the torture some sweet spiritualizing grace. But Swift's temper was demoniac. It seems superfluous to be attributing to him secret infamies and crimes.

Mr. Birrell's aptness in discovering unconscious humor in his fellow-man is nicely indicated in "Parliamentary Candidates," and the fun latent in so solemn a document as a report of a Royal Commission is quite beautifully disclosed in "The Bona-fide Traveller." The question here argued is, Who may lawfully get a drink at an inn on Sunday? Only a bona-fide traveller, say the law-makers, and he, Mr. Birrell explains, "has to make out a special case for being supplied with drink. The fact that he is thirsty counts for nothing. Everybody is thirsty on Sunday." Here he utters an incontrovertible truth. The distress caused by a Monday or Tuesday closing-act would be light indeed compared with that inflicted by a Sunday act. In the last essay, "Authors and Critics," Mr. Birrell makes a statement which, though partially true, is not incontrovertible. He says that the habit of reviewing new books in literary papers is a trade thing directly referable to the advertising columns. That means that the publisher says to the editor, "Review my books or you won't get my patronage." The editor passes on the "mandate" to the

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contributor, who then proceeds to laud without justice, or damn without mercy, regardful only of the liveliness of his own article. It would be interesting to know from how large an acquaintance with the methods of literary journals Mr. Birrell makes his deduction. The case between authors and reviewers is, however, very fairly put and suggestive for both. Yet, in these days, when the author in one magazine is the critic in another, their gibes at each other are really about as serious as the insult which the pot hurled at the kettle.

Electric Waves. By Dr. Heinrich Hertz. Authorized English translation by D. E. Jones. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

THE recent death of Dr. Hertz, in his thirty-seventh year, cannot be regarded otherwise than as a calamity to science. The work before us is a translation of his collected papers, which originally appeared in Wiedemann's *Annalen*. The English translation was supervised by the author himself, and the very interesting and valuable preface is due to Lord Kelvin. Then follows the modest and fair-minded introduction of Dr. Hertz. There are thirteen of his papers, all of which are of fundamental importance. Taking Maxwell's electro-magnetic theory of light as the basis of his work, Hertz succeeded by a most beautiful series of experiments in proving the existence of distinct rays of electric force, and in showing that these possess the properties of rays of heat and light popularly so called. In other words, rays of electricity may be rectilinear, reflected, refracted, and polarized. The relation between electricity and other forms of energy is thus for the first time clearly demonstrated by experiment. To use the language of Lord Kelvin:

"During the fifty-six years which have passed since Faraday first offended physical mathematicians with his curved lines of force, many workers and many thinkers have helped to build up the nineteenth-century school of *plenum*, one ether for light, heat, electricity, magnetism; and the German and English volumes containing Hertz's electrical papers given to the world in the last decade of the century will be a permanent monument of the splendid consummation now realized."

Of course, very much remains to be done, and even the history of recent discovery is yet to be written. The work of our countryman, Joseph Henry, to whom is exclusively due the important discovery of the oscillatory character of the discharges of the Leyden jar, appears not to be known in Germany, and Hertz attributes to Helmholtz in 1847 what had been distinctly proved by Henry in 1842. But Hertz's work is eminently just to the claims of others, and he himself must stand in history as presenting an extraordinary combination of mathematical and experimental powers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden's Nutshell Cyclopedia. Vol. I. J. B. Alden.
Allen, Grant. The Lower Slopes. London: Mathews & Lane; Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
Bacon, Rev. B. W. The Triple Tradition of the Exodus. Hartford: Student Publishing Co. $2.50.
Bercy, Paul. Short Selections for Translating English into French. W. R. Jenkins. 75 cents.
Cameron, Mrs. H. L. A Tragic Blunder. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Davis, R. H. Our English Cousins. Harpers. $1.25.
Glazebrook, R. T. Light. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Holmes, Eleanor. The Price of a Pearl. Harpers. 60 cents.
Kirkpatrick, Mrs. T. J. The Peerless Cook-Book. Springfield, O.: Most, Crowell & Kirkpatrick.
Little, Rev. W. J. Knox. Sacerdotalism. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier. Vol. II. 1812—1814. Scribners. $2.50.
Norman, Philip. London Signs and Inscriptions. London: Elliot Stock; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Orcutt, W. D. Good Old Dorchester: A Narrative History of the Town, 1630-1893. Cambridge: The Author.
Porritt, Edward. The Englishman at Home. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Preston, Prof. Thomas. The Theory of Heat. Macmillan. $5.50.
Ribot, Prof. Th. The Psychology of Attention. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Scott, Sir W. The Pirate. 2 vols. [International ed.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.
Selby-Bigge, L. A. Hume's Enquiry concerning the Human Understanding. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Sergeant, Adeline. The Surrender of Margaret Bellarmine. International News Co. 50 cents.
Sever, F. P. The Progressive Speller. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Sharp, William. Vistas. Derby, Eng.: Frank Murray.
Starr, Dr. Louis. An American Text-Book of the Diseases of Children. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders. $7.
Stoddard, C. W. Hawaiian Life: Being Lazy Letters from Low Latitudes. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Story, W. W. A Poet's Portfolio: Later Readings. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Studies and Notes in Philology and Literature. Vol. II. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Swan, Maggie. For the Sake o' the Siller. Hunt & Eaton. 85 cents.
The Jewish Question and the Mission of the Jews. Harpers. $1.75.
The Revival of Irish Literature. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Thorpe, Prof. T. E. Essays in Historical Chemistry. Macmillan. $2.25.
Trevor-Battye, Aubyn. Pictures in Prose of Nature, Wild Sport and Humble Life. Longmans, Green & Co.
Van Deventer, E. M. A Dead Man's Step. Rand, McNally & Co. 75 cents.
Welcome, S. B. From Earth's Centre. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 25 cents.
Wentworth, G. A., and Hill, G. A. An Examination Manual in Plane Geometry. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 cents.
Werner, E. A Lover from Across the Sea. Robert Bonner's Sons.
Westall, William. For Honor and Life. Harpers. $1.25.

TAINE'S MODERN REGIME, VOL. II.

Translated by John Durand. Completes M. Taine's *Origins of Contemporary France*, consisting of *The Ancient Régime*, *The French Revolution* (3 vols.), and *The Modern Régime*, Vol. I. Library Edition. $2.50 per volume.

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